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PART VI.

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PREFACE

THIS handbook deals broadly with the chief men and movements of what might be called modern times—namely, the period from the French Revolution to the Great War of 1914–18. It traverses part of the ground covered in Book V. of the Series, but amplifies and extends it to meet the needs of young people who are about to leave school and take their places as citizens. The point of view is predominantly British, but an attempt has been made to take the broad view, and to show that modern Britain is, and always has been, intimately concerned with the doings of the rest of the world.

A consistent effort has been made to help the pupil to study movement, cause and effect, and tendencies rather than to memorize isolated facts. This has been attempted not only in the manner of presentation of the subject-matter, but also in the framing of the questions, which are intended to help the pupil to think, to test his acquired knowledge, to compare and contrast, and to form his own opinion on historical matters, so that he may use his deductions when he comes to take a real part in the life of the nation to which he belongs.

Pictures, maps, and diagrams have been carefully selected to create the necessary atmosphere and assist in the difficult task of historical visualization, while the titles of a number of historical novels have been given as a guide to further reading.

An Appendix on Civics has also been added, giving useful information which will help in the understanding of the daily papers and prepare the pupil for exercising the franchise in an intelligent manner. Selected portions of the Covenant of the League of Nations are printed at the end of the book.

My friend, Dr. F. W. Tickner, has been kind enough to read the proofs, but is not in any sense responsible.

HISTORICAL LANDMARKS (1789–1918)

Period.		*Chief Events.*	*People of Importance.*
HOUSE OF HANOVER.	1789	Outbreak of French Revolution.	WILLIAM PITT (1759–1806).
			Edmund Burke (1729–97).
George III. (1760–1820).			Mirabeau (d. 1791).
	1792	Execution of Louis XVI.	Marat (assassinated 1793).
		Reign of Terror.	
	1793	British Declaration of War with France.	Robespierre (executed 1794).
	1794	Battle of First of June.	Danton (d. 1794).
			NAPOLEON (1769–1821).
	1797	Battles of St. Vincent and Camperdown.	
	1798	Battle of the Nile.	NELSON (1758–1805).
	1799	Napoleon First Consul.	
	1800	Battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden.	
	1801	Battle of Copenhagen.	
	1802	Treaty of Amiens.	
	1803	War with France renewed.	
	1804	Napoleon, Emperor of the French.	
	1805	Battles of Ulm, Austerlitz, and Trafalgar.	
	1806	Death of Pitt. Berlin Decrees; followed by British Orders in Council.	WELLINGTON (1769–1852).
	1808	Peninsular War begins.	
	1812	Retreat from Moscow.	Blücher (1742–1819).
		War between Britain and the United States (1812–14).	
	1813	Battle of the Nations (Leipzig).	Metternich (1773–1859).
	1814	First Treaty of Paris. Napoleon exiled.	
	1815	Battle of Waterloo. Second Treaty of Paris.	
	1819	" Peterloo " massacre.	
George IV. (1820–30).	1821	Death of Napoleon.	George Canning (1770–1827).
	1825	Stockton and Darlington Railway opened.	
	1829	Catholic Emancipation Act.	Mazzini (1805–72).
William IV. (1830–37).	1832	First Reform Act.	Lord John Russell (1792–1878).
	1834	Poor Law Amendment Act.	Palmerston (1784–1865).
	1835	Municipal Reform Act.	
Queen Victoria (1837–1901).	1839	Independence and integrity of Belgium guaranteed by the Powers.	
	1840	Penny Postage.	Sir Robert Peel (1788–1853).
		Act of Union for Canada.	
	1846	Repeal of the Corn Laws.	Richard Cobden (1804–65).
			Garibaldi (1807–78).
			John Bright (1811–89).
	1848	The Year of Revolutions in Europe. Chartist activity in England.	Louis Kossuth (1802–94).

Period.		*Chief Events.*	*People of Importance.*
HOUSE OF HANOVER. Queen Victoria (1837–1901)—*continued.*	1851	The Great International Exhibition.	
	1854	The Crimean War.	Louis Napoleon Emperor of the French (1852–70). Florence Nightingale (1820–1910).
	1856	Peace of Paris.	
	1857	Indian Mutiny.	Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde (1792–1863).
	1859	War between Austria and Italy, helped by France. Battles of Magenta and Solferino. Garibaldi and the "Thousand" in Sicily.	Count Cavour (1810–61).
	1861	American Civil War begins. Cotton famine in Lancashire.	ABRAHAM LINCOLN (1809–1865).
	1864	War of Schleswig-Holstein.	William I. of Prussia (1797–1888). Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria (1830–1916).
	1866	Austro-Prussian War. Battle of Königgratz.	
	1867	Second Reform Act. Constitution of Dominion of Canada.	Livingstone (1813–73). Bismarck (1815–98). Von Moltke (1800–91).
	1869	Opening of Suez Canal.	
	1870	Franco-Prussian War. English Elementary Education Act.	DISRAELI, LORD BEACONSFIELD (1804–81).
	1871	Founding of German Empire. Act legalizing Trade Unions.	
	1872	The *Alabama* Case between Britain and U.S.A. settled by arbitration.	
	1875	French Republic established. Britain purchases large holding in Suez Canal shares.	W. E. GLADSTONE (1809–98).
	1877	Russo-Turkish War. Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.	
	1880	Roberts's march from Cabul to Candahar.	Lord Roberts (1832–1914).
	1881	Transvaal independence acknowledged by Britain.	
	1882	Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy. Bombardment of Alexandria.	General Gordon (1833–85).
	1884	Third Reform Act.	
	1885	Death of Gordon at Khartum.	Lord Salisbury (1830–1903).
	1886	First Home Rule Bill.	
	1887	First British Colonial Conference.	
	1888	Accession of William II. as German Emperor. Local Government Act setting up County Councils.	

Period.		*Chief Events.*	*People of Importance.*
HOUSE OF HANOVER.	1893	Second Home Rule Bill.	Lord Rosebery.
	1894	Chino-Japanese War.	A. J. Balfour.
	1896	Jameson Raid in South Africa.	
Queen Victoria (1837–1901)—*continued.*	1897	War between Turkey and Greece.	
	1898	Tsar proposes Peace Conference; held (1899) at the Hague.	Cecil Rhodes (1853–1902).
	1899	Boer War begins.	
	1900	Commonwealth of Australia founded.	Joseph Chamberlain (1836–1914).
		Orange Free State and Transvaal annexed.	Lord Kitchener (1850–1916).
Edward VII. (1901–10).	1902	Peace in South Africa. Treaty of Vereeniging.	General Botha (1862–1919).
	1904	Russo-Japanese War. Anglo-French Agreement.	
	1906	Meeting of First Russian Duma.	
	1907	Second Hague Conference. London Colonial Conference.	
HOUSE OF WINDSOR.	1908	Revolution in Turkey.	
George V. (1910–).	1911	Conference of Prime Ministers of the Empire.	Mr. Asquith. Sir Edward (afterwards Lord) Grey.
	1912	Balkan War.	
	1914	Outbreak of European War.	Mr. Lloyd George.
		March of Germans through Belgium.	Lord French. Sir Douglas (afterwards Earl) Haig.
		Retreat from Mons.	
		Battle of Marne.	Admiral Jellicoe.
		First Battle of Ypres.	Admiral Beatty.
		Coronel naval disaster.	General Smuts.
		Falkland Islands victory.	Marshal Foch.
	1915	Second Battle of Ypres.	General Hindenburg.
		Allied landing in Gallipoli.	President Wilson.
		Sinking of *Lusitania.*	
		Italy joins the Allies.	
		Bulgaria joins the Central Powers.	
	1916	Evacuation of Gallipoli.	
		Battle of Jutland.	
		Battle of the Somme.	
		Hindenburg assumes command of German forces.	
	1917	Revolution in Russia.	
		United States joins the Allies.	
		Allied victories on the Messines and Passchendaele Ridges.	
		British enter Jerusalem.	
	1918	Foch appointed Generalissimo.	
		Great German attack repulsed	
		Retreat of Germans.	
		Surrender of Bulgaria and Turkey.	
		Abdication of Kaiser.	
		Armistice signed.	
	1919	Treaty of Versailles.	
		League of Nations.	

CHAPTER I—THE WORK BEFORE US

THE title given to this book gives a general idea of the ground we are to cover. Napoleon was born in 1769, but we shall begin at 1789, the year of the outbreak of the French Revolution, which gave him his opportunity; and we shall come down to the end of the Great War in 1918, or a little beyond it. This course will cover about a century and a quarter of modern history.

It will be predominantly British history, but this does not mean that it will be only about the British Isles. Britain is physically an island, or group of islands, but there is no country in the world, except perhaps France, which has had more to do with other countries. Britain has been more or less of a continental country since the days when southern Britain formed a province of the Roman Empire; and we cannot understand her story without taking into account her relationship with the rest of the world, and especially with Europe, America, and the British lands beyond the seas.

Some one has said that history is mainly a record of wars and of crimes on a great scale, and that it ought therefore to be hushed up. There is a great deal of truth in this criticism, but no soundness in the conclusion.

The history of a nation ought to be a record of its progress from barbarism to civilization.

Now, no country can become civilized until it obtains a good central government; and the story of the way in which it has achieved this guiding and controlling power forms its political history. This story naturally includes a great deal about the deeds and misdeeds of kings and governors, and the reader must endeavour to trace through the record the evolution of a king or governor who can be truly said to represent the nation, to be at the head of the government, but acting with it, rather than controlling it, for the ultimate good of the whole people. If we keep in our minds some central idea of this kind we shall find political history much more interesting and cease to regard it as a series of isolated events.

Tennyson writes in his poem, *Locksley Hall*:—

"For I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the suns."

We can only make history intelligible by watching for the "running" of the "one increasing purpose."

A central government—King, Lords, and Commons, or whatever it may be—does not exist for its own glorification or even to provide material for the newspapers. Its duty is to make the social life of the whole nation as comfortable and happy as things can be made in a world which is by no means perfect. The social life means the life which is lived *together*, the give and take, the work and pleasures, the joys and those inevitable sorrows of a body of people united by a common language, a common purpose, and a common tradition. Social history, apart from political history, tells of the doings of Tom, Dick, and Harry, of Brown, Jones, and Robinson, rather than of nobles and senators, and leaders in law, the Churches, and the fighting forces. Behind every trade and occupation there is an interesting history, not excepting the all-important occupation of house-keeping. Games and pastimes have also developed from interesting beginnings. We can therefore define social history as the record of the work and play of the great body of a nation from the earliest times.

But no nation can live to itself alone. Every civilized community has had points of contact with the others, sometimes that violent contact that we call war, which all true students of history deplore. Now we have for the most part come to the conclusion in the modern world that *war is only excusable when it is defensive*, and we apply this judgment to the record of each of the wars in our history. We condemn the Hundred Years' War because it was begun by Edward III. and continued by Henry V. in order to subdue France, though this does not take away our admiration for the bravery of the English yeomen at Crecy and Agincourt. We glory in the Armada because it was a fight in defence of our home, and in the struggle which followed Napoleon's threat of invasion, about which we are to read in a later chapter of this book. And the Great War of 1914–18 was undertaken in defence of

the right, to protect Belgium and to help France as well as to insist upon the sanctity of a treaty to which England and other great Powers, including Prussia, had set their names.

We shall read much of war by land and sea in the following chapters, and it is well that we should have clear and sane ideas about the matter. Every true-hearted patriot longs for the days "when war shall be no more," and is eager to consider any plan which may be suggested for making armed conflict impossible. But the most eager reformer will do well to study the wars of past ages if it is only to see how war can be avoided in the future and to learn useful lessons from past mistakes. We shall see in due time how the Great War of 1914–18 set men wondering how disputes could be settled without bloodshed, and led to the establishment of the League of Nations.

ARISTOCRATS
(French Revolution).

The period we are going to study is the most important of all historical periods for those of us who are living at the present day. We cannot understand modern life and movements unless we know what happened during the past century. We cannot read our newspapers intelligently without this knowledge, for newspaper writers are continually referring to events and people who belong to that time, and assume that we know something, if not all, about them. We cannot exercise our privilege of voting in a worthy manner unless we study present-day political and international questions in the light of the recent past.

EXERCISE I

1. Glance down the columns of pages 4, 5, and 6, and note those topics of which you know most, and those of which you know least.
2. What is the difference between history and politics?
3. What great political parties exist at the present day? Who is the leader of each party?

NAPOLEON AT THE MILITARY SCHOOL OF PARIS.

(*From the painting by M. Réalier Dumas.*)

[Napoleon was a silent, haughty, ambitious, sharp-tempered lad who was perpetually at war with his school-fellows.]

CHAPTER II—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THE English Revolution of 1688, which placed William III. on the throne, had a quiet but none the less real effect upon thoughtful people in France. Louis XIV., the "Grand Monarque," who is credited with the remark, "*I* am the State," died in 1715, and left behind him a legacy of misery; for his great wars, ambitious schemes, and royal extravagance had laid burdens upon his people which were almost unbearable.

Louis had established an absolute monarchy uncontrolled by people or Parliament. The French aristocrats were for the most part idle, proud, and luxurious, while the middle class and the peasantry were heavily taxed not only to pay for the recent wars but also to support the aristocrats. The latter owned most of the land and claimed so much from the farmers that it was scarcely worth while to cultivate it. Then came the American Revolutionary War (1775–83), in the latter part of which the French helped the colonists to shake off the yoke of a "tyrant"—namely, our own country, or at least its government; and this successful assertion of the "rights of man" as against the rights of monarchs must also have had a great influence upon the French *bourgeoisie* and peasantry.

These two Revolutions in which England was concerned were object lessons whose meaning could be readily grasped by the uneducated Frenchman, while the educated thinker found in the books of Voltaire, Rousseau, and other writers the new ideas on individual liberty which were being eagerly discussed throughout the country, and especially in the capital. Men began to speak of "liberty, equality, and fraternity," to question the "rights of monarchs and governing classes," and to hint that a day of reckoning was coming which would astonish all the absolute rulers of Europe.

It came in 1789, about one hundred years after the English Revolution. The national discontent had become so pronounced that King Louis XVI. took steps to allay it. He called together an old-established national council called the States-General, which had not met since the year 1614,

and which consisted of three "estates," representing respectively the nobility, the clergy, and the commons. The last-named section soon obtained the upper hand and turned the States-General into a National Assembly in which the commons outnumbered the clergy and nobles. At one of the sittings a royal message was received dismissing the commons, but they refused to go away, and when an attempt was made to drive them away the Comte de Mirabeau, who, though a noble, was a deputy of the people, declared "The commons of France have resolved to deliberate. Tell your master that we are here by the *will of the people,* and that none shall snatch us hence except at the sword's point."

King Louis, a well-meaning but weak-minded monarch, called out the royal troops. The Assembly replied by organizing a National Guard. A story was put about that the king had ordered the commander of the Bastille, a fortress in Paris used as a prison, to train his guns upon the city. An angry mob collected, attacked the Bastille, murdered its defenders, and razed it to the ground. When the king heard what had happened he said, "Why, this is a revolt." "Nay, sire," said one of the courtiers, "it is a revolution."

The fall of the Bastille was followed by a general rising. The peasants took up arms, murdered many of the nobles, and burned their castles. The king was powerless to interfere, and the Assembly, backed by the mob, passed laws which swept away all the privileges of the nobles and the "rights" of the clergy. Early in October an angry mob, chiefly of women, shouting, "Bread, bread, give us bread!" marched to Versailles and invaded the royal palace. They forced the king to promise that he would come to Paris and live among his people. The promise was kept, but affairs in the capital became so threatening that an attempt was made to convey the king and his queen, Marie Antoinette, out of the country, but they were overtaken and brought back to Paris.

The agitation continued. Numerous political clubs were started, and public affairs were violently debated at meetings, where the most extreme measures of reform were advocated. Meanwhile, many of the nobles had left the country with their families, and some of them were urging foreign governments to declare war on France. Austria and Prussia prepared for

ROUGET DE L'ISLE SINGING THE MARSEILLAISE.

(*From the painting by Pils; in the Louvre Gallery. Photo by Mansell.*)

In his *French Revolution* Carlyle tells how a band of men was sent out from Marseilles by the Municipality with the simple command, "March, strike down the Tyrant."

"Dusty of face, with frugal refreshment," writes Carlyle, "they plod onwards; unweariable, not to be turned aside. Such march will become famous. The Thought which works voiceless in this black-browed mass, an inspired Colonel, Rouget de l'Isle, has translated into grim melody and rhythm; into his Hymn or March of the Marseillese: luckiest musical-composition ever promulgated. The sound of which will make the blood tingle in men's veins; and whole Armies and Assemblages will sing it, with eyes weeping and burning, with hearts defiant of Death, Despot, and Devil."

war, but in 1792 a new French ministry formed from the party known as the Girondins forced the king to declare war on Austria and later on Prussia.

When the Duke of Brunswick, who was leading the Prussians, issued a proclamation threatening Paris with destruction if the king and queen were injured, the fury of the French people knew no bounds, and in the autumn of this year the king and queen with their children were imprisoned. The king was deposed and a French Republic was established, while large numbers of aristocrats were put to death in a most cruel manner. Meanwhile the Prussians were advancing, but on the 20th September the French troops resisted them so stoutly at Valmy that they were forced to retreat.

In January 1793 Louis XVI. was beheaded, the drums silencing his last words to the people. Thus the French Revolutionists "hurled as a defiance to the allied kings the head of a king."

BOOKS TO READ.—Selected chapters of *The Eye-Witness*, by Hilaire Belloc; *Ange Pitou* and *La Comtesse de Charny*, by Dumas; *The Story of a Peasant*, by Erckmann-Chatrian; *The Trampling of the Lilies*, by Rafael Sabatini; *The Last Duchess of Belgrade*, by M. E. Seawell; *The Lady of the Mount*, by F. S. Isham; *The Marquis's Heir*, by A. H. Biggs; *A Rogue's Tragedy*, by Bernard Capes; *Valiant and True*, by J. Spillmann; *The Red Cap*, by Edward S. Tyler; *In the Lion's Mouth*, by Eleanor C. Price; *St. Katherine's by the Tower*, by Walter Besant; *The Red Cockade*, by Stanley Weyman.

EXERCISE II

1. What is meant by the word "revolution"?
2. When did the Civil War in England commence? When was Charles I. beheaded?
3. When did the French Revolution break out? When was Louis XVI. executed?
4. Compare, in a general way, the nature of the English and the French risings.
5. Compare Charles I. and Louis XVI. with regard to their ideas of their office and dignity.
6. Compare the English Parliament of Charles I. with the States-General of Louis XVI.
7. Who was queen of Charles I.? Of Louis XVI.?
8. From what historical events did the French Revolutionists draw encouragement and inspiration?
9. Connect French literature with the outbreak of the Revolution.
10. How can you most easily remember the date 1789?

CHAPTER III—ENGLAND AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THERE were many British people who approved of the first stage of the French Revolution as a bid for a "reasoned liberty," such as they considered their own nation had won for itself. One of these was the young poet Wordsworth, who visited France during the early stages of the social upheaval, and who wrote:—

> "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
> But to be young was very heaven! Oh! times,
> In which the meagre, stale, forbidding ways
> Of custom, law, and statute took at once
> The attraction of a country in romance."

And another English poet of an earlier time, William Cowper, had written of the Bastille:—

> "Ye horrid towers, the abode of broken hearts,
> Ye dungeons and ye cages of despair,
> That monarchs have supplied from age to age
> With music such as suits their sovereign ears—
> The sighs and groans of miserable men—
> There's not an English heart that would not leap
> To hear that ye were fallen at last!"

There was, moreover, an English Revolution Society, founded to commemorate the Revolution of 1688, whose members sent greetings to the National Assembly, which found in their address "those principles of universal benevolence which ought to bind together, in all countries of the world, the true friends to the happiness and liberty of mankind."

Then came the execution of King Louis XVI., which sent a thrill of horror through the courts of Europe, and converted British friends into critics and very quickly into enemies. William Pitt was very anxious to avoid the outbreak of war, but was unable to hold the nation back, and in 1793 the great struggle began which lasted, with two short intervals, until July 7, 1815. The earlier part of the contest is known as the French Revolutionary War, the later as the Napoleonic Wars.

It was in the summer of 1793 that the awful Reign of Terror began, during which no fewer than fourteen hundred persons, including the queen, Marie Antoinette—"the widow Capet," as she was called—were executed in the space of six weeks. All persons who, rightly or wrongly, were suspected of hostility to the Revolutionary government were dragged before a tribunal, which, as a rule, sent the suspect to the guillotine, and the executions afforded some of the most fiendish scenes in the whole of history.

The famous English statesman, orator, and author, Edmund Burke, wrote *Reflections on the French Revolution*, in which he protested against the measures taken by the National Assembly, and commended moderation.

"I should suspend my congratulations," he writes, "on the new liberty of France until I was informed how it had been combined with government; with public force; with the discipline and obedience of armies; with the collection of an effective and well-distributed revenue; with morality and religion; with the solidity of property; with peace and order; with civil and social manners. All these, in their way, are good things too; and without them, liberty is not a benefit whilst it lasts, and is not likely to continue long."

Meanwhile there was in Paris a young lieutenant of artillery named Napoleon Bonaparte, who was destined to become Britain's greatest enemy, and to lead the French armies from victory to victory, but at last to final disaster. He was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, in 1769, and came to Paris in his youth to become a cadet at a military school. He was a silent, haughty lad, full of self-will and boundless ambition, and though he was very studious none of his teachers thought highly of his powers.

In 1793 he was placed in command of the artillery which was besieging the naval port of Toulon, of which the British had taken possession with the help of those of the inhabitants who had remained loyal to the French royal house. The French conducted the siege with such skill that the British were forced to leave the port; but before they left they burnt part of the French fleet, which lay in the harbour, and set fire to the arsenal.

One of the ships which under Lord Hood's command captured Toulon was the *Agamemnon*, on board of which was

NELSON TAKING LEAVE OF HIS GRANDMOTHER.
(*From the picture by George W. Joy. By permission of the artist.*)

Horatio Nelson, post-captain in the British Navy, who had already seen some fighting in the Mediterranean. His ship was sent to co-operate in the siege of Calvi, in Corsica. Here half of his men fell sick owing to the heat, and in one engagement a shot struck the ground near him and drove the sand and small gravel into one of his eyes. He made light of the injury, but the sight of the eye was lost.

Two months before this event Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, embarked at Cork for Ostend and fought against the French at Antwerp at the head of the 33rd Regiment. Then he was sent first to the West Indies and afterwards to India, where he fought against the French, although so far from the main theatre of war. He does not come again into the European struggle until 1808.

BOOKS TO READ.—The early part of the *Life of Nelson*, by Robert Southey (corrected and edited by Geoffrey Callender); *Chevalier de Maison Rouge*, by Dumas; *The Reds of the Midi*, *The Terror*, and *The White Terror*, by Félix Gras; *A Tale of Two Cities*, by Charles Dickens; *L'An '93*, by Victor Hugo; *My Lady Marcia*, by Eliza F. Pollard; *Citoyenne Jacquelin*, by S. Tytler; *A Romance of Dijon*, *The Dream Charlotte*, and *A Storm-rent Sky*, by M. Betham Edwards; *The Adventures of the Comte de la Muette* and *Our Lady of Darkness*, by Bernard Capes; *The Red Shirts*, by Paul Gaulot; *At the Sign of the Guillotine*, by Harold Spender; *The Scarlet Pimpernel*, *I Will Repay*, and *The Elusive Pimpernel*, by Baroness Orczy; *When Terror Ruled*, by May Wynne; *The Year One*, by J. Bloundelle Burton; *Nicole* and *In the Name of Liberty*, by Owen Johnson; *A Marriage under the Terror*, by Patricia Wentworth; *The King's Cockade*, by H. Rendel (a glimpse of Wordsworth); *A Fair Refugee*, by Morice Gerard; *The Refugee*, by C. Gibson; *The God of Clay* (Napoleon as a youthful officer), by H. C. Bailey; *The Two Captains*, by Cyrus T. Brady (Bonaparte and Nelson at Toulon).

EXERCISE III

1. Note the following dates :—
   Napoleon, 1769–1821. Nelson, 1758–1805. Wellesley (later Duke of Wellington), 1769–1852.
2. Find the age of each man at his death; the age of Nelson when Napoleon and Wellesley were born; the number of years that Wellington lived after (1) Napoleon, (2) Nelson.
3. Find out, in a general way, what was happening during the first twenty years of each man's life (Book V. of this series may help you).
4. Edmund Burke's life covers from 1729 to 1797. How old was he when Marie Antoinette was beheaded? What great war took place when he was about fifty?
5. Wordsworth's life covers from 1770 to 1850. How old was he when the French Revolution broke out? What do we mean when we say that he was "contemporary" with Wellington?

6. How do you account for the excesses of the French Revolution ?
7. Take a leap of a century from 1789 or from 1793. Where do you alight ? (See Table on pages 4 to 6.)
8. What is the lesson of the following ?

> "On the 10th of July a shot having hit our battery, the splinters and stones from it struck me with great violence in the face and breast. Although the blow was so severe as to occasion a great flow of blood from my head, yet I most fortunately escaped, having only my right eye nearly deprived of its sight. It was cut down, but is so far recovered as for me to be able to distinguish light from darkness. As to all the purpose of use it is gone. However, the blemish is nothing ; not to be perceived unless told. The pupil is nearly the size of the blue part —I don't know the name."—NELSON TO HIS WIFE.

9. What has the French Revolution to do with us to-day ?
10. Are there any points of contact between your own town, village, or district with Nelson, Napoleon, or Wellington ? If so, name them. (Even the name of a street will be something—it may have been built in the period we are studying.)

CHAPTER IV—NAPOLEON AND NELSON

HISTORY and literature have gone to extremes about Napoleon. According to Thomas Carlyle the historian and essayist, writing in 1837, he was "our last great man." While Napoleon was living he was bitterly hated in England, and no name was bad enough for him. He was familiarly known as "Boney," and became a kind of bogy, especially to naughty boys and girls, who were told to be good or "Boney would get them."

We are far enough from his time to make a reasoned estimate of his character and influence, and it is one of the duties of students of history to make such estimates at every turn in their work. We regard Napoleon as a military commander of genius and marvellous persistence, as a man of inordinate ambition, ruthless in attaining his ends, without any high idea of the value of human life. As a ruler he was marked by plain good sense, and when he caused the code of laws to be drawn up which is known by his name, he stipulated that this quality was to be the basis of the new enactments.

The history of France centres round this remarkable man from about the time that he distinguished himself at Toulon. When the period of the Terror had passed, France set out on her mission to bring the benefits of "freedom" to other

countries. She offered, vainly enough, to help the British people against their "tyrannical" government; and having beaten Holland converted that country into a republic. It was in this same year 1795 that the Cape of Good Hope was taken by the British from the Dutch. Britain was helped during this period by both Austria and Russia, but Spain joined France; and the conjunction of the large and powerful fleets of these two countries gave the British admirals their greatest anxiety as well as their great opportunity.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.
(*From the unfinished painting by David.*)

The year 1797 is known in British history as the "Black Year." Napoleon was sent into Northern Italy to fight the Austrians, and having captured Milan, Mantua, and Venice, set up a North Italian Republic. Then he advanced into Austria, but the Emperor asked for peace. Britain was now left practically alone to face the growing power of France. At this time occurred the Mutiny at the Nore, which for a short time paralysed the British fleet, but Pitt satisfied the demands of the mutineers and the year ended in great satisfaction. For, black though it was for a time, it was the year of the victories of St. Vincent and Camperdown.

A Spanish fleet of twenty-seven ships had sailed from Cadiz

and had encountered Admiral Jervis (with Collingwood and Nelson) in command of a squadron of only fourteen vessels. Nelson was in the *Captain*, and led a boarding party which captured the *San Nicholas*. Then he dashed from his prize on board the *San Josef* which lay alongside, crying out, "Westminster Abbey or Victory." The Spanish captain tendered his own sword, but Nelson insisted upon receiving the swords of all the officers, handing them to a bargeman who stood at his side, and who " tucked them under his arm as if he were making a faggot."

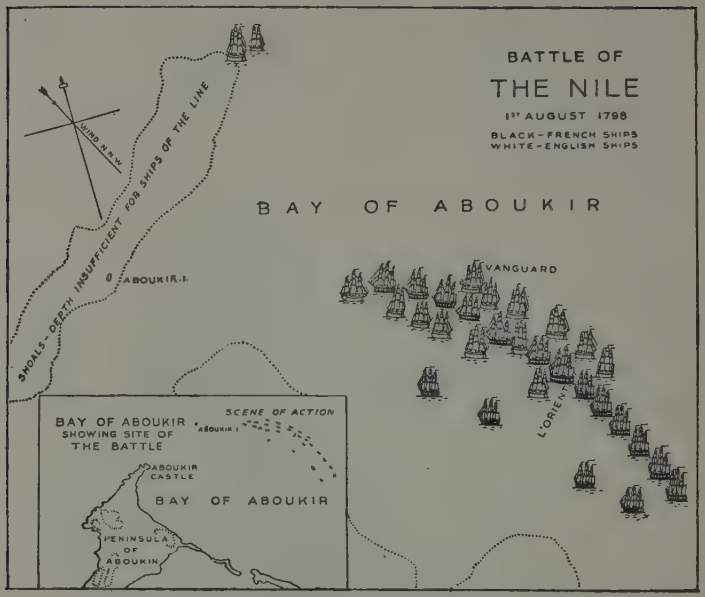
No less decisive was Duncan's victory off Camperdown, which came later in the year. He had blockaded the coast of Holland for five weary months, and at last the Dutch fleet slipped out hoping to find the Mutiny still in progress. Duncan's fleet, with the exception of two ships, had actually mutinied, but the admiral continued to signal to them as if all was well, as indeed it was when the battle was actually joined.

" Fifteen sail were the Dutchmen bold,
Duncan he had but two ;
But he anchored them fast where the Texel shoal'd,
And his colours aloft he flew.
' I've taken the depths to a fathom,' he cried,
' And I'll sink with a right good will,
For I know when we're all of us under the tide
My flag will be fluttering still."

At the end of that " loud " day Duncan could count at least eleven prizes, and the rest of the Dutch vessels were " under the tide."

Meanwhile the rising Napoleon was carrying out a new plan for crippling Britain, which he now knew to be his arch enemy, by re-founding a French-Indian Empire. He slipped out from Toulon with transports and a strong fleet, captured Malta, and anchored in Aboukir Bay at the mouth of the Nile. Alexandria was stormed and Cairo occupied. The French general now considered that he was in command of the route to India.

But a fleet of fast frigates, with Admiral Nelson in command, which had been scouring the Mediterranean, came up with the French fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay. The fight which followed, known as the Battle of the Nile, was fought in the night, each British vessel having a cross-bar, carrying four



lanterns, hoisted at the mizzen-peak, while a lantern was lashed to the bulwarks over each gun. Nelson was in the vanguard, and during the fight was wounded severely in the forehead; but he soon recovered, and scrambled up from the cockpit just as the French *Orient* blew up with a tremendous report that for a moment deadened the noise of the guns. When morning broke only three ships of the French fleet were left, and of these only two escaped. Napoleon was now cut off from France by sea.

But he was not disheartened. "This reverse," he said, "will compel us to do even greater things than we had planned." He marched into Syria with designs upon Constantinople, but he was checked by the British and Turks at the fortress of Acre and was forced to fall back upon Egypt, from whence he made his way back to France by land alone, to find the government in a state of utter confusion.

He soon assumed control of affairs and was named First Consul of the Republic. He was placed in command of a fine army which he led over the Great St. Bernard Pass into Northern Italy, where he won the victory of Marengo, which placed him in the front rank of military leaders.* A few months later another French leader won such a decisive victory at Hohenlinden, near Munich, that the Austrians sued for peace in order to save Vienna from the conqueror.

Thanks to Nelson, "the one unrivalled thunderbolt that England had forged," Britain was once more in command of the Mediterranean. Malta was retaken and the French were driven out of Egypt. But Napoleon induced Russia, Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden to form a league against Britain with the object of shutting out her ships from the Baltic Sea. A British fleet under Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson as second-in-command, was sent to Copenhagen to summon the Danes to abandon this Northern League (the Armed Neutrality) and allow the British ships to pass the Sound. They refused, and the Battle of Copenhagen, or the Baltic, followed.

Parker hung back, and before long gave the signal "Leave off action." Then Nelson said to Captain Foley, "You know, Foley, I have only one eye. I have a right to be blind sometimes." And then putting the telescope to the blind eye he exclaimed, "I really do not see the signal." So the fight continued so far as Nelson was concerned. He forced his way up to Copenhagen, sunk or captured nearly the whole of the Danish fleet, and silenced the shore batteries. The Armed Neutrality was now broken up, and so Napoleon's plans were once more foiled by Nelson. The Peace of Amiens was signed in the following year (1802), but it was merely a truce.

BOOKS TO READ.—Southey's *Life of Nelson*; *The King's Own*, by Captain Marryat; *Admiral*, by Douglas Sladen; *The Battle of the Strong*, by Gilbert Parker; *In Press-gang Days*, by E. Pickering; *The Companions of Jehu*, by Dumas; *Rodney Stone*, by A. Conan Doyle; *The Hour and the Man*, by Harriet Martineau; *A Pawn in the Game*, by W. H. Fitchett; *The Two Captains*, by Cyrus T. Brady; *Leroux*, by Mrs. Walter R. D. Forbes; *Beatrice of Venice*, by Max Pemberton; *Phantasma*, by A. C. Inchbold; *In the Days of Nelson*, by Captain Frank H. Shaw; "*As We Sweep through the Deep*," by Gordon Stables; *Tre, Pol, and Pen*, by F. Frankfort Moore; *Fags and the King*, by Charles J. Mansford; *A Girl of the Eighteenth Century*, by Eliza F. Pollard.

* The skeleton of his white charger, which was named after this battle, is in the United Services Museum, Whitehall, London.

EXERCISE IV

1. Show the chief events of the careers of Nelson and Napoleon in two parallel columns down to the year 1802.
2. What trait of character is shown by Napoleon's remark (quoted on page 22) after the Battle of the Nile ?
3. What do you deduce further about the character of Napoleon from the following remarks attributed to him :—
   (*a*) " Every really good law must have good sense for its foundation " (concerning the *Code Napoleon*).
   (*b*) " I shall go down to posterity with this Code in my hand."
   (*c*) " I have spoiled a hat among your mountains ; well, I shall find a new one on the other side " (after the Passage of the Alps).
4. What do you deduce about Nelson's character from his remark at the Battle of St. Vincent ?

(N.B.—His right arm was so badly injured in the attack on Teneriffe, following the Battle of St. Vincent, that it had to be amputated.)

5. Make an estimate of the character of Admiral Duncan.

ADMIRAL DUNCAN.
(*After the portrait by Hoppner.*)

6. Sir John Jervis, the victor of St. Vincent, is, rather unfairly, overshadowed by Nelson. What is your opinion about him, based upon the following extract from Southey's *Life of Nelson :* " As soon as the action was discontinued, Nelson went on board the Admiral's ship. Sir John Jervis received him on the quarter-deck, took him in his arms, and said he could not sufficiently thank him."
7. From the letters of Horatio Nelson's name we can frame the Latin sentence *Honor est a Nilo :* Honour is (or has come) from (or by means of) the Nile. Try to make an anagram of this kind from the name of some other well-known person in history.
8. Make a shield as for a coat of arms, showing some symbols which will indicate the chief ideas or events in the life of (1) Nelson, (2) Napoleon, (3) Louis XVI., (4) Marie Antoinette. (See History Practice IV., page 70.)

CHAPTER V—TRAFALGAR

In 1804 Napoleon was proclaimed Emperor of the French, anointed by the Pope in Notre Dame, and crowned with his own hand. A few months later he was also crowned King of Italy, and then went on with his preparations for war against Russia, Austria, and particularly Britain. He had established a great camp at Boulogne, and here he assembled a large fleet of flat-bottomed boats for use as transports. In these vessels he intended to carry across the Channel an army of 150,000 men, which was to make a landing on the south coast of England under the protection of the guns of a powerful fleet.

The reply to this threat of invasion was the enrolment of a volunteer force for home defence which, in a short time, numbered 347,000 men. The spirit behind the movement was excellent, but there was more hope of protection and safety in the British Navy. New warships were rapidly built, and every effort was made to prevent the junction of the fleets of France and Spain. If these two naval forces should be able to unite, they might defeat the British fleet, and then the way would be open for carrying out at least the first part of the plan of invasion.

Nelson lay off Toulon waiting for the French fleet to put out, hoping it would do so, and using every stratagem to give it an opportunity—playing what was called a "game of cat and mouse." Napoleon's plan was for the French fleet to slip past him and then join forces with the Spanish fleet from Cadiz. The combined fleets were then to sail westward, as if to the West Indies, in order to induce Nelson to follow them, and quickly turn to unite with another French fleet stationed at Brest before the British admiral could come up with them again.

The French fleet did indeed come out from Toulon while Nelson was watering his ships in Sardinia, and in about six weeks they were in harbour in the West Indies waiting for the rest of Napoleon's ships. On 4th June a fleet arrived from Europe, but it was neither French nor Spanish. It was the fleet of Admiral Lord Nelson, which had crossed the Atlantic in less than four weeks. The French admiral, Villeneuve, at once set out for Europe, with Nelson in close pursuit. Off Ferrol there was an engagement with a squadron under

Sir Robert Calder, which gave Nelson time to join Collingwood at Cadiz, and turned the French fleet south.

After cruising in the Bay of Biscay in search of the enemy, Nelson received orders to proceed with the *Victory* and *Superb* to Portsmouth, where he heard of Calder's action and of the other movements of the enemy, whose squadrons he had been the chief means of keeping continually on the move. He was warmly thanked for his services, and appreciated the approval of his countrymen very highly, for he was at the moment feeling very sore at what he considered his want of success during his two years of patient watching.

After a short rest he set out again in the *Victory*, and arrived off Cadiz on the 29th of September. Stung by bitter taunts flung at him by Napoleon, Villeneuve came out with thirty-three ships of the line, French and Spanish, and five frigates. Nelson, with twenty-seven ships, caught him on 21st October off Trafalgar, between Cadiz and Gibraltar. His method of attack was unusual but decisive. He bore down in two parallel lines, headed by himself and Collingwood respectively. The van of the French line was thus cut off and kept out of action, while the centre and rear were pounded and shattered, every ship being taken or destroyed. Even the van could not escape completely, since four vessels were taken, besides the eighteen prizes secured in the main action.

The victory was absolutely overwhelming. Trafalgar made an end of all serious resistance to the British control of the seas. It was the last real naval action of the war, because after it there was no navy to fight. But the victory was dearly bought at the price of the death of the intrepid leader, who by universal assent is accounted the greatest sea-captain that the world has ever known.

Trafalgar also dispelled the shadow of invasion which had hung over Britain since 1802. But Napoleon, seeing that Nelson had foiled his plans, had advanced upon the Austrians, who were concentrated in force at Ulm, in Würtemberg, and on the day before Trafalgar won a decisive victory. Vienna was occupied, and on 2nd December the Emperor won at Austerlitz what is reckoned to be the most brilliant of all his victories, forcing the Russians to retreat and annihilating the Austrians. Napoleon's triumph on land was complete. "Roll

THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR.

(By Clarkson Stanfield, R.A.; in the National Gallery of British Art.)

LORD NELSON.
(*From the painting by Sir William Beechey, R.A.*)

up that map of Europe," Pitt is reported to have said when he heard of this victory, "it will not be wanted again for ten years." On January 23, 1806, he passed away.

BOOKS TO READ.—Further chapters of Southey's *Life of Nelson*; *Springhaven*, by R. D. Blackmore; *Afloat with Nelson*, by Charles H. Eden; *Diamond Rock*, by J. Macdonald Oxley; *In Nelson's Day*, by George Hewett; *'Twas in Trafalgar's Bay*, by Walter Besant and James Rice; *The Gentleman*, by Alfred Ollivant; "*England Expects*," by Frederick Harrison; *The Yarn of Old Harbour Town*, by W. Clark Russell; *In Nelson's Way*, by G. Rowe; *Nellie of the Eight Bells*, by Archer Philip Crouch; *Holborn Hill*, by Christian Tearle; *The Trumpet-Major*, by Thomas Hardy; *A Gentleman of London*, by Morice Gerard; *The Sovereign Power*, by Violet A. Simpson; *The Infamous John Friend*, by Mrs. R. S. Garnett.

EXERCISE V

1. Estimate the character of Admiral Collingwood from the following account of his bearing at Trafalgar :—

   " In this, the greatest moment of his life, Collingwood retained his wonted calm and homely attitude. He walked the break of the poop munching an apple, or sighted a quarter-deck gun himself lest the shot should be wasted from undue excitement. In the very thick of the fray, a sail came down and lay hanging over the hammocks. Collingwood summoned an officer to his side, and with his assistance folded it. Then he placed it carefully in one of the boats. It might be wanted another day, he said, and, if left, would have fallen overboard."

2. What further traits of Nelson's character are shown in the following :—

   (*a*) After giving his signal " England expects every man will do his duty," he said, " Now, I can do no more. We must trust to the Great Disposer of all events, and the justice of our cause. I thank God for this great opportunity of doing my duty."

   (*b*) " He wore that day (Trafalgar) as usual his admiral's frock-coat bearing, on the left breast, four stars of the different orders with which he was invested. His officers wished to remonstrate with him, but knew that it would be of no use. ' In honour I gained them,' he had said when such a thing had been hinted to him formerly, ' and in honour I will die with them.' "

   (*c*) " See," cried Nelson, pointing to the *Royal Sovereign*, " see how that noble fellow, Collingwood, carries his ship into action."

   (*d*) After Nelson had been carried below Hardy hinted that Admiral Collingwood would take upon himself the direction of affairs. " Not while I live, Hardy," said the dying Nelson.

   (*e*) " Kiss me, Hardy. Now I am satisfied. Thank God, I have done my duty."

3. What further traits of Napoleon's character are evident from the following :—

   (*a*) Napoleon crowned himself as emperor in Notre Dame.

   (*b*) He had a medal prepared, stamped " Struck at London, 1804."

   (*c*) After Austerlitz he wrote to his wife Josephine : ' I have beaten the Russian and Austrian armies commanded by the two emperors. I am a little tired. . . . I go to sleep for two or three hours. The Russian army is not only beaten but destroyed. I embrace you. . . .—NAPOLEON."

CHAPTER VI—NAPOLEON AND WELLINGTON

After Austerlitz Napoleon stood at the summit of his wonderful career. He brought the "Holy Roman Empire" to an end,* set up a Western German league of smaller states under his protection; gave the kingdom of Naples to his brother Joseph, and made another brother, Louis, King of Holland; and set up a number of Napoleonic dukedoms in North Italy. A new league, including Britain, Russia, Sweden, and Prussia, was formed against him, but he defeated the Prussians at Jena and Auerstadt on the same day and marched into Berlin.

"Into a score of years," writes Lord Rosebery, "he crowded his own dazzling career. In that brief space we see the lean hungry conqueror swell into the sovereign, and then into the sovereign of sovereigns. But England, his island enemy, is on his nerves; he sees her everywhere; he strikes at her blindly and wildly."

One of these "blind and wild" blows was struck from Berlin. He published the Berlin Decrees, forbidding all trade or intercourse with Britain on the part of the countries directly or indirectly under his control. Portugal refused to be bound by these Decrees, and Napoleon declared that its royal house had "ceased to reign," and sent an army to occupy Lisbon. Then he was asked to arbitrate between the King of Spain and his heir, who were constantly quarrelling. He summoned both to Bayonne, detained them, and made his brother Joseph King of Spain. The Spaniards naturally resisted, and Britain determined to help them, thus giving Wellesley the chance in Europe which he had left India to seek. This was in 1808, and the Peninsular War which now began lasted until 1814.

"That disastrous war was my ruin," Napoleon said near the end of his life. "It divided my strength, opened a way for the English, and injured my reputation in Europe."

During the first part of this campaign Napoleon was busy in Austria; but when Wellesley had beaten his troops at Vimiera he marched into Spain, beat the Spaniards, and sent a force in pursuit of Sir John Moore, who drew the French after him into the mountain lands of the north-west, defeated

* See History Practice V., Chap. V., p. 31.

them at Corunna, and fell in the battle. His army had no supplies, but was able to embark in safety for home.

This happened in January 1809, while Wellesley was in England and Napoleon once more in Austria, where he married the daughter of the Austrian royal house, having divorced the Empress Josephine. Then he received news that Wellesley had again landed in Portugal, and marching into Spain had won the important victory of Talavera. After that battle the British general retreated into Portugal behind the triple line of fortifications at Torres Vedras, near Lisbon, and here awaited the attacks of Marshal Massena. Again and again assaults were made upon these lines, but all in vain; and after a terrible winter the French were forced to withdraw into Spain.

Then the British general, who was now Lord Wellington, came out from behind the lines and the British won victory after victory against the heaviest odds. Massena was beaten at Fuentes d'Onoro, Soult at Albuera. In 1812 the British stormed the two strong frontier fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos. Advancing again into Spain, Wellington met the enemy at Salamanca, where he "beat 40,000 men in forty minutes," after which he entered Madrid, and King Joseph left the city in hot haste.

Meanwhile Napoleon had advanced into Russia at the head of a splendid army. The Russians withdrew before him, wasting the country on the way. The French entered Moscow to find it deserted. In a short time food grew scarce, and great fires broke out in various parts of the city. No envoys came to offer the Tsar's submission to the "conqueror," according to the rules of warfare, and Napoleon therefore gave orders for the homeward march.

It was winter, and the great conqueror had now to fight against a pitiless climate. Before the snows came Napoleon had lost two-thirds of his men. "The ragged, shivering, starving troops threw away their useless arms. They staggered on, day after day, through the snow, until their strength gave out and they fell to the ground. The falling flakes soon covered them; and hundreds of little white hillocks appeared, each one of which showed where one or more dead soldiers lay." The retreat occupied some two months, and only a small portion of the "Grand Armée" found its way home again.

BADAJOS AND ITS CITADEL FROM THE NORTH BANK OF THE RIVER GUADIANA.
(*From a view taken in* 1813.)

Russians, Prussians, and Austrians concentrated against the tyrant. He collected an army of new troops, and fought and lost at Leipzig the three days' "Battle of the Nations." Meanwhile Wellington had been driving the French towards the Pyrenees. At Vittoria they made a stand, but were completely beaten and cut off from home. After a few months the British advanced into France and drove Soult from Toulouse with heavy loss. Then Wellington received the great news that the Emperor had given up his throne.

The allies had followed him to Paris, but it was Napoleon's own generals who forced him to give up. He was sent to "rule" the little island of Elba in the Mediterranan, but was allowed to retain his imperial title. The brother of Louis XVI. became King as Louis XVIII., and a Congress met at Vienna to "settle" Europe on the old lines. At this time Britain was engaged in a struggle with the United States, caused by disputes over contraband of war. There was some fighting on the Canadian frontier and "naval" battles on the Great Lakes, while on the high seas there was a duel between the British *Shannon* and the American *Chesapeake*, which ended in the victory of the former. Peace was made on Christmas Eve in the year 1814, but the question of the rights of neutrals in war time was not settled.

Three months later Napoleon escaped from Elba, landed in France, and in a few days was at the head of an enthusiastic army of 100,000 men. The French king ran away, and Napoleon was proclaimed Emperor. Europe rose against him, but Prussia and Britain were first in the field. Wellington's work was not yet done.

BOOKS TO READ.—J. G. Edgar's *Heroes of England* for lives of Moore and Wellington; *Tom Burke of "Ours"* and *Charles O'Malley*, by Charles Lever; *The Romance of War*, by James Grant; *Sons of the Sword*, by Margaret L. Woods; *A Castle in Spain*, by Bernard Capes; *The Bivouac*, by W. H. Maxwell; *Alice Lorraine*, by R. D. Blackmore; *Adventures of Harry Revel* and *The Westcotes*, by A. T. Quiller-Couch; *Captain Sword*, by H. B. Marriott Watson; *Kenneth*, by Charlotte M. Yonge; *An Ocean Free Lance*, by W. Clark Russell; *Boy Soldiers of 1812*, by E. T. Tomlinson; *The Exploits of Brigadier Gerard* and *The Adventures of Gerard*, by A. Conan Doyle; *The Shadow of the Sword*, by R. Buchanan; *Vengeance is Mine*, by A. Balfour; *The American Prisoner*, by Eden Phillpotts; *If Youth but Knew*, by A. and E. Castle; *The King's Revoke*, by Margaret L. Woods; *Corporal Sam*, by A. T. Quiller-Couch; *Strong Mac*, by S. R. Crockett; *A Young Man Married*, by Sydney C. Grier; *Moscow*, by F. Whishaw; *The Hundred Days*, by Max Pemberton.

EXERCISE VI

1. Several poets have found themes in the period we are now studying. Read C. Wolfe's poem, *The Burial of Sir John Moore*.
2. Study the following summary of Wellington's career before Waterloo, from Tennyson's *Ode on the Death of the Duke*:—

> "For this is England's greatest son,
> He that gained a hundred fights,
> Nor ever lost an English gun;
> This is he that far away
> Against the myriads of Assaye
> Clashed with his fiery few and won;
> And underneath another sun,
> Warring on a later day,
> Round affrighted Lisbon drew
> The treble works, the vast designs
> Of his laboured rampart-lines,
> Where he greatly stood at bay,
> Whence he issued forth anew,
> And ever great and greater grew,
> Beating from the wasted vines
> Back to France her banded swarms,
> Back to France, with countless blows,
> Till o'er the hills her eagles flew
> Round the Pyrenean pines,
> Follow'd up in valley and glen
> With blare of bugle, clamour of men,
> Roll of cannon and clash of arms,
> And England pouring on her foes.
> Such a war had such a close."

3. To what does Tennyson refer in the further lines from this poem:—

> "Again their ravening eagle rose
> In anger, wheel'd on Europe-shadowing wings
> And barking for the thrones of kings."

THE SPANISH PENINSULA, SHOWING THE AREA AND CENTRES OF THE WAR OF 1808–14.

4. Study the following appreciation of Wellington by the poet Southey :—

> "Foresight and enterprise, with our commander, went hand in hand ; he never advanced but so as to be sure of his retreat ; and never retreated but in such an attitude as to impose upon a superior enemy . . . There was something more precious than these, more to be desired than the high and enduring fame which he had secured by his military achievements—the satisfaction of thinking to what end those achievements had been directed ; that they were for the deliverance of the two most injured and grievously oppressed nations ; for the safety, honour, and welfare of his own country ; and for the general interests of Europe and of the civilized world. His campaigns were sanctified by the cause ; they were sullied by no cruelties, no crimes ; the chariot wheels of his triumphs have been followed by no curses ; his laurels are entwined with the amaranths of righteousness, and upon his deathbed he might remember his victories among his good works."

CHAPTER VII—WATERLOO AND PETERLOO

When Napoleon reappeared in such a dramatic manner the Duke of Wellington was in Belgium at the head of an allied army of ninety thousand men; while in the Rhine provinces there was a Prussian army under Blücher, whose creditable nickname was "Marshal Forwards." Napoleon marched into Belgium, hoping to defeat the Prussians before the British could join them. He advanced rapidly upon Charleroi, and thus came between the two armies. The Prussians were beaten at Ligny on 16th June, while Marshal Ney fought an indecisive engagement with Wellington at Quatre Bras.

Napoleon now detached a force to pursue Blücher, and turned his main body against Wellington, who met him at last on the field of Waterloo, to the south-east of Brussels, on Sunday, June 18, 1815. The plan of the British general was to stand on the defensive until the Prussians should arrive. But the day wore on and they did not come, while the French made terrible havoc among the British, Hanoverian, and Belgian soldiers under the "Iron Duke." At last, towards evening, Blücher arrived on the field.

As a last resort Napoleon ordered his "Imperial Guard" to charge the enemy. They advanced with all the confidence born of victory after victory, but were forced to fall back under a murderous fire from the British and Prussian batteries. Then the French army broke and fled, nor could Napoleon rally them. He made his way to Paris and drew up his final abdication, in which he declared, "My public life is finished. I proclaim my son Emperor of the French under the title of Napoleon the Second." Then he gave himself up to the British at Rochefort, where the *Bellerophon* was moored. From here he wrote a letter to the Prince Regent of England*:—

"A victim to the factions which distract my country, and to the enmity of the greatest Powers of Europe, I have terminated my political career, and I come to throw myself upon

* During the last ten years of his life (1810–20) George III. was hopelessly insane, and his son, who later succeeded him as George IV., was Regent.

the hospitality of the British people. I put myself under the protection of their laws; which I claim from your Royal Highness as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of my enemies."

The feeling in Britain with regard to the fallen Emperor may be judged from the following passage from the *Times* of July 25, 1815:—

"Our paper of this day will satisfy the sceptics, for such there were beginning to be, as to the capture of that bloody miscreant NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE. Savages are always found to unite the greatest degree of cunning to the ferocious part of their nature. The cruelty of this person is written in characters of blood in almost every country in Europe . . . and nothing can more strongly evince the universal conviction of his low, perfidious craft, than the opinion which was beginning to get abroad that, even after his capture had been officially announced both in France and England, he might yet have found means to escape.

"However, all doubts upon this point are at an end by his arrival off the British coast, and if he be not now placed beyond the possibility of again outraging the peace of Europe, England will certainly never again deserve to have heroes such as those who have fought and bled at Waterloo, for this his present overthrow."

Napoleon partook of the hospitality of the British people for the rest of his life; but it was on the lonely island of St. Helena, far out in mid-Atlantic, and under strict guard, that he lived as the guest of the nation which had so often thwarted his plans. He died some six years after Waterloo. "On the night of his death," writes Lord Rosebery, "a great storm was raging outside, which shook the frail huts of the soldiers as with an earthquake, tore up the trees which the Emperor had planted, and uprooted the willow under which he had been accustomed to repose. Within, the faithful Marchand was covering the body with the cloak which the young conqueror had worn at Marengo."

So much for the "glory" of the Napoleonic Wars. During the long and bitter struggle the prices of food, clothing, and other necessaries of life in England had risen very high, and when the fighting was over they did not fall. Poverty and discontent quickly increased, and there was a loud outcry for

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NAPOLEON ON BOARD THE "BELLEROPHON."

(From the picture by W. Q. Orchardson, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.)

"reform" of government. But "reform" and "freedom" were cries connected with the French Revolution, which was wrongly blamed for all the miseries of the recent war. For the moment, therefore, the British ruling classes were not disposed to allow "agitators" to stir up mischief.

But the agitation went on and increased in bitterness. There were riots in many places, especially in the industrial North Country and the Midlands, the most celebrated disturbance being the "Peterloo massacre" of 1819. On 16th August a mass meeting was arranged by the Manchester agitators to hear Henry Hunt, a speaker who wanted annual parliaments, votes for all male adults, and the use of the ballot—that is to say, secret voting. A crowd gathered in St. Peter's Fields, and the Lancashire yeomanry were called out to preserve order. Trouble arose, the troops charged, and several people were killed, to the intense indignation of reformers in all parts of the country. "Peterloo" was not so important as it was significant. It is a landmark in a movement which, as we shall see, did eventually succeed in making great changes in the lives of the people of England.

BOOKS TO READ.—*The Blockade*, *The Conscript*, and *Waterloo*, by Erckmann-Chatrian; *The Great Shadow*, by A. Conan Doyle; *St. Ives*, by R. L. Stevenson; *Les Misérables*, by Victor Hugo; *The Manchester Man*, by Mrs. G. L Banks; *Vanity Fair*, by W. M. Thackeray; *Taken from the Enemy* by Henry Newbolt; *Stories of Waterloo*, by W. H. Maxwell.

EXERCISE VII

1. How many years since the French Revolution broke out?
2. Make an Index containing the following items: Girondins, Toulon, Collingwood, the Terror, Napoleon Bonaparte, William Pitt, Edmund Burke, Marie Antoinette, Berlin Decrees, Battle of the Nations, Marengo, Austerlitz, the *Marseillaise*, William Wordsworth, Marshal Massena, Wellington, Nelson.
3. What thought-connection is there between Waterloo and Peterloo?
4. Name the four outstanding figures of Chapters I.–VII. of this book.
5. Whom did Tennyson call the "world-victor's victor"?
6. What part did the United States play in the Napoleonic Wars?
7. Can you detect any difference in tone between the *Times'* reference to Napoleon and that of Lord Rosebery?
8. What is the opinion to-day on the character of Napoleon?
9. What anniversary is kept in London on 21st October?
10. Trace any points of contact between your own home district and the history which you have been reading.

CHAPTER VIII—MEANWHILE——

We have been so intent upon wars and victories that we have even forgotten who was King of England from 1789 to the time we have now reached! And, more important still, we have overlooked any social progress which may have been made during the strenuous years of the struggle with Napoleon. A period of war does not usually produce measures for making the life of the nation fuller and happier, but we shall find that between 1789 and 1819 some advance was made.

In the very year of the outbreak of the French Revolution we find Edmund Burke, William Wilberforce, and Charles James Fox supporting the movement against the traffic in West African slaves which was carried on across the Atlantic, the negroes being employed chiefly in the West Indies and the United States. The chief worker in this humane movement was Wilberforce, who, having inherited a large fortune, determined to use it in educating public opinion on this matter. Year after year for twenty years he pressed the cause on the attention of Parliament, and in 1807 he had the happiness of seeing the *trade* in slaves abolished, though it was not until 1833 that slavery itself was brought to an end in the British colonies.

In 1801, the year of Copenhagen, we find William Pitt trying to gain citizen rights for Roman Catholics. At that time they were not allowed to vote at elections or to be members of Parliament, or take up any of the learned professions or enter the public service or go to the universities. George III. opposed Pitt, saying that if he consented to the "emancipation" of Roman Catholics he would break his coronation oath to preserve the Protestant succession. Pitt would not give way and resigned his office as Prime Minister, but came back to power not long afterwards because the country needed his guidance in the war. Catholics were not emancipated until 1828, during the reign of George IV.

About this time (1800) Pitt carried through an Act of Union which brought the separate Irish Parliament to an end. After this date Irish members of Parliament were to come to Westminster, and thirty-two Irish peers were to have seats in the

House of Lords. The Irish Bill was carried through by lavish bribery in the face of intense opposition, which we must remember when we come to consider the question of Home Rule for Ireland.

During the stress of war it was difficult to deal wisely and soberly with the question of relief of the poor, for, largely owing to the war, there was a great deal of poverty and distress throughout the country. It was decided in 1795 to give all persons whose wages fell below a certain level a grant of money which would bring up their income to a fixed amount. This was the "dole" of the period, and it had two bad effects. It kept wages down because employers could depend upon public funds to supplement the wages of their workers; and it decreased self-respect and self-effort on the part of many of the workers themselves.

Some efforts were made during this period to improve conditions of labour in woollen and cotton mills. An Act passed in 1802 set up a twelve hours day for apprentices, prohibited night work, insisted upon some education being given, and made sanitary regulations for workshops and sleeping-rooms. But this Act did little good, for it did not set up any means of enforcing its provisions, and it became inoperative. Factory legislation of a more effective kind was to come later. But it is worth noting that even when England was threatened with a French invasion there were some men who were thinking out ways of making Britain a somewhat better place in which to live when the war should be over.

It could not be claimed that the England of this period was an educated country. Comparatively few people could read and write, and it was not yet generally recognized that it was the duty of the State to provide at least elementary instruction for the mass of the nation. Scotland was in a much better position with regard to this matter. She had parish elementary schools long before England awoke to her duty.

As education was neglected, crime was rampant, much of it being due to ignorance. The prisons were full, and the conditions under which prisoners lived were degrading in the extreme. It was about two years before Waterloo that a Quaker lady named Elizabeth Fry began to pay visits to the women and girl prisoners in Newgate, to preach to them and

try to bring them hope and comfort. She was able to get many things done to make prison life a little more comfortable and decent, and she went on with her beneficial work during the whole of her life. An earlier prison reformer was John Howard, who did a great deal to improve conditions under which prisoners lived.

BOOKS TO READ.—Several of the novels and tales already mentioned give some general idea of the way in which life was lived in Britain between 1789 and 1819. Some of the following might also be read :—*Under Cheddar Cliffs*, by Edith Seeley ; *Crowborough Beacon*, by Horace G. Hutchinson ; *Up and Down the Pantiles*, by Emma Marshall ; *Sylvia's Lovers*, by Mrs. Gaskell ; *Memoirs of a Person of Quality*, by "Ashton Hilliers" ; *A Romance of Old Folkestone*, by Frances Marsh ; *The History of Margaret Catchpole*, by Richard Cobbold ; *The Witch Maid*, by L. T. Meade ; *Lauristons*, by John Oxenham ; *Against the Stream*, by Mrs. Rundle Charles ; *The Stooping Lady*, by Maurice Hewlett ; *Twisted Eglantine*, by H. B. Marriott Watson ; *St. Dunstan's Fair*, by Mary and Catherine Lee ; *Sir David's Visitors*, by Sarah Tytler ; *Running Horse Inn*, by A. T. Sheppard ; *Starvecrow Farm*, by Stanley Weyman ; *The Apprentice*, by Maud Stepney Rawson ; *Pride and Prejudice*, by Jane Austen ; *Adam Bede*, by George Eliot ; *John Halifax, Gentleman*, by Dinah Mulock ; *Shirley*, by Charlotte Brontë.

EXERCISE VIII

1. How many years were there between Waterloo and the outbreak of the Great War ?
2. Name some things which you hope are going to be reformed, or improved, before you come to our own time in reading this book.
3. Do you consider Napoleon was "our last great man" ? If not, name some great men (or women) who have lived since his time.
4. Name some changes which affected ordinary British daily life after Waterloo.
5. Compare the methods of spreading war news at the time of Waterloo with those adopted during the Great War.
6. Why should Belgium become a fighting place for the races of Europe ?
7. Which monarchs followed George III. ? Give dates.
8. Write a short account of one of the story-books you have read which deal with the years between 1789 and 1819.

GEORGE IV.

(*From a sketch made at Ascot Races*, 1828.)

CHAPTER IX—REFORM OF PARLIAMENT

WILLIAM PITT, the father of Pitt who died so soon after Austerlitz, said in 1773: "Before the end of this century, either Parliament will reform itself from within or be reformed with a vengeance from without." He was at one time member for Old Sarum, and, as a consequence, knew how necessary it was that the methods of selecting members of the House of Commons should be altered. For Old Sarum, not far from Salisbury, was little more than a mound of earth, the remains of a city which sent two members to the first Parliament of Edward I. in 1295, and continued to send two members for five hundred years after that date—even when there was no city of Old Sarum left!

Moreover, Pitt was not "elected" as we understand the word. Old Sarum was a "pocket borough"—that is to say, its representation was in the gift of one of the influential families, who sent their own man to look after their personal interests in Parliament. Old Sarum was not the only pocket borough in the country, and in some cases the seat was sold to the highest bidder. There were many "rotten boroughs," too, this name being applied to those places which had greatly decreased in population and yet retained the right of sending one or more members to the House of Commons. Some of the boroughs were, moreover, controlled by the Crown, and the few electors in them obediently "returned" the man recommended to them by the sovereign.

Meanwhile large towns had grown up in the North and Midlands since the Industrial Revolution; and these towns sent no members to Parliament, while Old Sarum mound sent two!

It is not surprising that the agitators who roused the country in the years after Waterloo should ask for reform of Parliament. They felt that the nation was not by any means properly represented in the House of Commons of that time, and that laws would never be made to set social matters right while all the political power was in the hands of a few great families.

The agitation against this system went on after Peterloo, until at last, in 1831, Lord John Russell, who belonged to the

Whig party, introduced a Parliamentary Reform Bill, and carried it through the House of Commons by a majority of one. A general election was held, and the reformers had a majority of one hundred and thirty-six. A new Reform Bill was now introduced by Earl Grey, and was carried through the Commons but was thrown out by the House of Lords, where the Duke of Wellington led a strong party which was opposed to any plans for changing the old system.

The anger in the country was very great, and for a time it seemed as if the second part of Pitt's prophecy was about to come true. Great meetings of protest were held, and there were riots in many parts of the land. At Bristol several public buildings were destroyed, and about a hundred people killed or wounded. Nottingham Castle, the residence of the Duke of Newcastle, was burned as a protest against the political power of the aristocracy. The Lords were alarmed, and when the Bill came before them they passed it, but only after altering it in such a way that it became quite harmless, from their own point of view.

The excitement grew still more intense and dangerous, and everywhere arose the cry, "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill." Revolution seemed to be threatened. The King asked the Duke of Wellington to form a ministry to deal with the situation, but the victor of Waterloo did not relish the prospect of a civil war and gave up the hopeless task. William IV. was then obliged to recall the reforming party to power, and to promise to create new peers to pass the Bill. Then some of the members of the Upper House gave way at the King's request, the Duke of Wellington and his strongest supporters walked out of the House rather than vote, and the Reform Bill became an Act of Parliament. This was in 1832, a memorable year in British political history.

But the new Act did not really go very far. It is true that "rotten boroughs" were swept away, and for the first time votes were given to the shopkeepers and the better-paid artisans in the towns as well as to the farmers and others in the rural districts, but the Act did not give votes to those who had little money and no property. Thirty-five years later a Reform Act was passed which gave a vote to every ratepayer in a borough, and to certain people in the country. Even

lodgers, if they paid an annual rent of £10 and had resided in the same lodgings for a whole year, became entitled to votes. In 1872 the Ballot Act, which introduced the ballot box for secret voting, was passed, and in 1884 the agricultural labourer received a vote on the same conditions as the artisan in the towns. In this careful and cautious way the nation was given the power of governing itself, but not, it is to be noted, before education had been more widely diffused. We shall consider this important matter in a later chapter, for in order to keep our minds fixed upon Parliamentary reform we have gone considerably beyond the period of the Act of 1832.

Books to Read.—*Forest Folk*, by James Prior (Luddite riots for smashing machinery, Nottingham district); *Mervyn Clitheroe*, by Harrison Ainsworth (Manchester, about 1820); *The Revolution in Tanner's Lane*, by Mark Rutherford (life in London about 1810 to 1830); *Mistress Barbara Cunliffe*, by Halliwell Sutcliffe (Yorkshire wool-combers about 1830); *Middlemarch* and *Felix Holt*, by George Eliot (the Reform period, 1830–32); *Cranford*, by Mrs. Gaskell (English life in a small country town); *Pendennis* and *The Newcomes*, by W. M. Thackeray (English life in London); *Under the Mendips*, by Emma Marshall (Bristol riots); *Pickwick Papers*, by Charles Dickens (especially the chapter on the Eatanswill election).

EXERCISE IX

1. Investigate the meaning of each of the following terms: election, representative, constituents, polling-booth, ballot-box, returning officer, majority, franchise, suffrages, canvasser, candidate, address.
2. Show how the voter should use this voting paper if only one candidate is to be elected :—

BROWN, Jane Ann	111 Acacia Crescent, Coalville	Journalist	
THOMPSON, James	55 High Street, Coalville	Colliery Owner	
WILLIAMS, Henry John	15 St. James' Square, London	Barrister-at-law	

3. Had your own town or district any special recorded connection with the Reform Movement of 1830–32? Ask questions of older inhabitants. (For example, Newcastle-on-Tyne has a Grey Street, with a statue of Earl Grey at the head of it.)
4. Why were votes given in the first instance only to people of property, or to those who paid certain rents or rates?

THE CITY OF NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE SEEN FROM GATESHEAD.

(From the picture by Niels M. Lund. By permission of Messrs. Mawson, Swan, and Morgan.)

5. Parliamentary votes were given to certain women over thirty in 1918. What is your thought about this ?
6. Why did those who were angry at social conditions after Waterloo bend their energies to the reform of Parliament ?
7. What was meant by "rotten borough," "pocket borough," and "redistribution of seats" ?
8. Compare the political agitation of 1819-32 in England with that in France in 1789 and afterwards.
9. What do you think Edmund Burke meant when he wrote thus:—
   "I flatter myself that I love a manly, moral, regulated liberty."
   "The effect of liberty to individuals is that they may do what they please: we ought to see what it will please them to do before we risk congratulations, which may be soon turned into complaints."
10. The Reformed Parliament (after 1832)—
    (1) Made changes in the Poor Law so as to discourage idleness among able-bodied workers;
    (2) Made a small grant of money for helping to provide elementary schools;
    (3) Freed slaves throughout the British colonies, at a cost of £20,000,000, which was paid to the slave-owners as compensation.
    Were the members to be congratulated on these measures ?

CHAPTER X—SOME VICTORIES OF PEACE

WILLIAM IV. died in 1837, just five years after the passing of the Reform Bill, the most important event in his short reign. He was succeeded by his niece, Queen Victoria, then a girl of eighteen, whose reign witnessed remarkable progress in all directions. It is interesting to note that the two periods of greatest progress in our history were the reigns of two great women—Queen Elizabeth and Queen Victoria.

Queen Victoria reigned from 1837 to 1901, a period of nearly sixty-four years. During this time so many great changes took place in the country and the British Empire that it is very difficult to give in this small book any adequate idea even of the most important. The general effect of these changes was to make the ordinary life of the people happier, fuller, easier, and more enjoyable, and we shall here name a few of them.

When Queen Victoria came to the throne the chief means of land travelling was the stage-coach, but only a few years

TRAVELLING ON THE LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY, OPENED SEPTEMBER 16, 1830.

(The upper picture shows a first-class train with mails, the lower a second-class passenger train.)

before her accession the first passenger railway had been opened between Liverpool and Manchester. Over this line a steam-engine, named the "Rocket," drew a single coach at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour. The engine of this first passenger train was built by George Stephenson, a native of Wylam, near Newcastle-on-Tyne, who had laid the first railway between Stockton and Darlington, which was opened for goods traffic in 1825.

After a while the new method of travelling became popular, and railroad-building began all over the country. Locomotives and trains were gradually improved. The first third-class passenger coaches were open trucks somewhat similar to those now used for the conveyance of goods. People who had carriages of their own often had them fastened upon railway trucks and travelled in them.

At the present time we have splendid long-distance trains, drawn by powerful steam locomotives sometimes at a rate of sixty miles an hour. The carriages are equipped with every comfort, while dining-cars are provided where meals may be taken on the journey, and sleeping-cars can be obtained by those who travel during the night. Railways run in almost all parts of the country, piercing through mountains, crossing rivers and deep valleys by bridges and viaducts, and even passing by means of tunnels under broad river estuaries like those of the Mersey and the Severn. We have also electric trains for shorter journeys, some of them, as in London, run-

ning through tunnels, or "tubes," deep down in the earth. The electric tram, the bicycle, the motor-bus, and the motor-car provide rapid means of transit by road. All these inventions have had a great effect on the national habits and character. At the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign most people spent their lives in their native district. At the present day travel is easy, safe, comparatively cheap, and comfortable, and there are few people who do not avail themselves of the advantages offered to them by this means.

Twenty-five years before Queen Victoria came to the throne the first steamboat was launched upon the Clyde. In the year following her accession the voyage from Bristol to New York was accomplished by the steamship *Great Western* in fourteen days. Before long the sailing-vessel was out of date for passengers. At the same time shipbuilders began to use iron and then steel in place of wood, though it was a considerable time before the wooden men-of-war were replaced by the steel armour-plated monsters of the modern navy.

In the earliest years of "the wonderful reign" the slow and expensive postal service of the country was completely revolutionized by the introduction of the Penny Post, and before Queen Victoria passed away it was possible to send a letter to almost any part of the British Empire for a penny. It was in the last year of the reign of William IV. that the electric telegraph was invented, and within a comparatively short time this convenient means of communication was in general use. The telephone came later, and is now one of the commonplaces of modern life. Before the close of Queen Victoria's reign the possibilities of wireless telegraphy had been proved, and this method of conveying messages has ceased to be "wonderful."

In the early part of the nineteenth century there were very few schools in the country. But about the middle of the reign of Victoria an Act was passed making the education of the young the duty of the nation. Schools were built in all parts of the land, and before twenty years had gone by elementary education had been made free to all. The effect of these changes upon the life and character of the nation cannot be easily estimated. It is now difficult to find a man or woman who is unable to read and write, and the newest British schools are among the best equipped in the world. This advance in

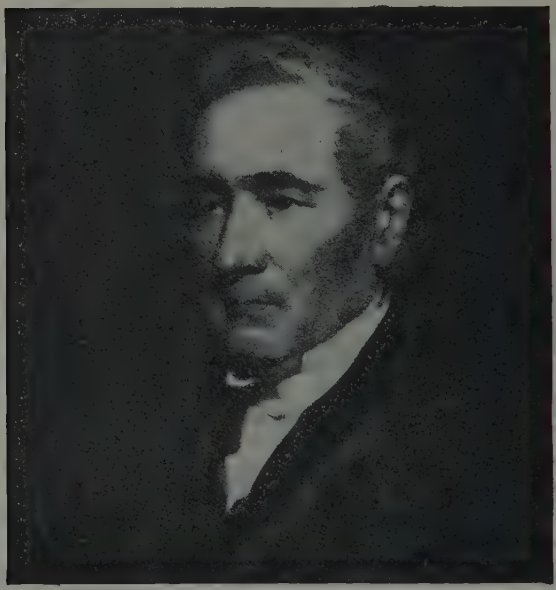
education is so important in our national story that we must consider it more fully in a later chapter.

Great advances have also been made in the practice of medicine and surgery, and in knowledge of the laws of health. A few generations ago the methods of the doctors were rough and ready—often, indeed, mere guesswork; and little was known of the causes of epidemic diseases such as cholera and smallpox. At the present time many diseases can be successfully treated which were once thought incurable; epidemics are less common, and seldom affect a very large number of people; the surgeon can perform the most critical operations without inflicting pain on his patient; and our towns are on the whole clean and healthy, owing to improved sanitary arrangements. Nor are the services of the best doctors and surgeons available only for the rich. The poorest people can obtain their help and advice in the well-equipped hospitals which have been erected in many parts of the country.

When Queen Victoria came to the throne newspapers were few, and cost usually about sixpence a copy. At the end of her reign a morning paper containing the news of the world could be bought for a halfpenny. The cost of books has also been greatly lessened. In 1837 a good library could only be acquired by those who were well-to-do. The working man of the present day can provide himself with a supply of the best books at an extremely small cost, or he can borrow books from the public library without any payment whatever. Great advances have also been made in illustrating books, largely owing to the invention and perfection of the photographic camera, which is another product of the Victorian age.

These are only a few of the most important changes affecting the everyday life of the people which were made during the reign of Queen Victoria. It is worthy of note that they were rendered possible by the freedom from great and expensive wars which the country enjoyed during the greater part of the nineteenth century.

BOOKS TO READ.—Smiles's *Lives of the Engineers* for George and Robert Stephenson; *Pioneers of Science*, by Sir Oliver Lodge; *The Romance and Reality of Radio*, by Ellison Hawks; *Lord Kelvin*, by A. Russell; *Modern Inventions*, by V. E. Johnson; *Victories of the Engineer*, *How it Works*, and *How It is made*, by A. Williams; *The Aeroplane*, by Grahame White and Harry Harper; *Ships and Seafaring*, *The Army*, *The Navy*, *Railways*, and *Work and Workers*, in the "Shown to the Children" Series.



GEORGE STEPHENSON, "THE FATHER OF RAILWAYS."
(*From the portrait by H. P. Briggs, R.A.*)

EXERCISE X

1. Show how the introduction of the railway affected (1) business, (2) the intelligence of the people, (3) political opinions and government.
2. Chloroform came into use about 1847. How has it helped (1) in peace, and (2) in war?
3. Trace some of the effects of the discovery of photography in the earliest years of Queen Victoria's reign.
4. What effects have followed the cheapening and increase in the size and number of newspapers?
5. A speaker once said that "fresh air was invented in Queen Victoria's reign." What do you think he meant?
6. What effects followed the general use of (1) iron and then steel steamships; (2) the telegraph and telephone; (3) wireless telegraphy and telephony?
7. Trace the effects of the invention of the pneumatic tyre.

CHAPTER XI—THE CHARTISTS AND THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS

We have seen that the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832 did not satisfy those who wished to make living easier for the workers in the factories and on the land. The agitation went on, and the leaders set down their demands in what came to be known as the People's Charter. They asked for manhood suffrage—that is to say, a vote for every man in the country—yearly Parliaments, and vote by ballot. The Chartists rapidly increased in numbers, and a monster petition embodying their wishes was presented to Parliament. Their demands were refused, and there were many Chartist riots in various parts of the country. We have already seen how long the country had to wait for the introduction of the ballot-box (see page 44), and how the vote was only gradually given to certain sections of the people, while yearly Parliaments have not yet arrived.

While the Chartists were vigorously agitating, another social movement was in progress which concerned the working-classes very closely. The leaders were Richard Cobden and John Bright, two North-Country manufacturers, who revived the Anti-Corn-Law League at Manchester in 1838. Their object was to set aside or repeal the Corn Laws, under which all corn brought into our ports was taxed so as to favour the British farmers.

There was a great outcry at the proposal. Farmers and landowners said that if foreign corn came into our ports free of tax it could be sold at a cheaper rate than the home-grown corn, and that this would lead to less corn being produced in the country, a dangerous state of things if war should come. The manufacturers replied that if foreign corn came into the country duty free workmen would obtain cheaper bread, while the corn would be paid for with British manufactured goods, and trade would thus be encouraged. Meetings of the League were held in all parts of the country, and the knotty question was warmly debated.

In 1841 Sir Robert Peel became Conservative Prime Minister, and one of the first things he did was to modify the Corn Laws

in such a way as to prevent the price of bread from rising to a very high rate. He also removed the taxes from a large number of other articles imported into this country, and made it possible for British manufacturers to send cheaper goods to their customers abroad. He further imposed an Income Tax of 7d. in the pound in order to make up for the loss of revenue caused by taking off these taxes.

Finally, he became a convert to the views of the Anti-Corn-Law League, and after a stiff fight succeeded in removing the duties levied upon foreign corn—that is to say, he did away with the Protection which the British farmer had enjoyed and gave the country Free Trade in corn. This was in 1846. In the previous year there had been a severe famine in Ireland owing to the failure of the potato crop, and thousands of people had died of starvation. It was pointed out by the agitators that the free importation of foreign corn would have prevented such waste of human life, and this famine had a great effect in bringing about the repeal of the Corn Laws.

Thus Britain began the plan of free importation which Free Traders claim to have made her great and wealthy, and Protectionists assert have placed her at a great disadvantage among the other nations of the world.

The People's Charter and the Corn Law Repeal must be taken together. There were many workers in the towns who viewed Cobden and Bright with suspicion in spite of their efforts to secure cheaper bread; for they said that these two leaders were really striving to keep wages down to the lowest possible level. There are always two sides to a political question; but Britain, as a rule, tries to work for the greatest good of the greatest number.

Books to Read.—Charles Kingsley's *Alton Locke* and Benjamin Disraeli's *Sybil* for the Chartist period; *Castle Richmond*, by Anthony Trollope, and *Castle Daly*, by Miss Keary, for the Irish famine; *Barchester Towers*, by Anthony Trollope, for life in an English cathedral city of about this period.

EXERCISE XI

1. What do you understand by Free Trade and Protection?
2. Why did the landowner as well as the farmer object to the repeal of the Corn Laws?
3. Why is a policeman sometimes called a "Peeler" and a "Bobby"?

SIR ROBERT PEEL MOVING THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS, JANUARY 1846.

(*From a sketch made in the House of Commons.*)

4. Write down a conversation between a manufacturer in favour of the repeal of the Corn Laws and a Chartist workman.
5. Why was secret voting so long delayed ?
6. How would you deal with a canvasser who asked you for whom you were going to vote ? What would you allow him to ask you or explain to you ?
7. Has your own town or district any memories of the Chartist and Corn Law agitations ? (How old is a man who was born in 1846, and one who was a man of twenty at that date ?)
8. Has the question of Free Trade and Protection been finally settled ? What is the name given to Protection at the present day ?

CHAPTER XII—EDUCATION AND CRIME

We have already seen that during the early years of Queen Victoria's reign the great body of the people of England, but not of Scotland, were miserably ignorant; but a small number of well-meaning patriots did what they could by means of private effort to educate some of the children of workers on the land by conducting "charity schools," Sunday * schools, and day schools connected with certain religious bodies.

In the beginning of the nineteenth century the Church of England founded the National Society, which established "national" schools in many parts of the country; and the British and Foreign School Society began also to make what provision it could for the children of parents who did not belong either to the Church of England or the Roman Catholic body. Up to this time the State had done practically nothing in this all-important matter, and did not think that it was its duty to do anything; and it was not until 1847 that the first definite step was taken towards the provision of State elementary education.

In that year the Whig (or Liberal) Government of Lord John Russell asked the House of Commons for a grant of £100,000 to be spent on elementary education, and in support of this request Lord Macaulay, the poet and historian, made a memorable speech.

"I believe," he said, "that it is the right and duty of *the State* to provide means of education for the people," and he went on to show that the work ought to be undertaken by the British Government, if only as a measure for ensuring national peace and safety. The ignorant man, he said, was as great a danger to the State as an open and professed foreign enemy; and in support of this argument he pointed to the terrible excesses of the No Popery riots of 1780 in London, when Lord George Gordon roused the feelings of strict Protestants against an attempt to give to Catholics some of their rights as citizens. (Charles Dickens has drawn a picture of the ignorant fanatic in his Simon Tappertit of *Barnaby Rudge*.)

* The first Sunday schools were established to teach reading, etc.

THOMAS BABINGTON, LORD MACAULAY.
(Born 1800, died 1859.)

"This instance is striking," said Macaulay, "but it is not solitary. To the same causes may be ascribed the riots of Nottingham, the sack of Bristol, all the outrages of Ludd, Swing, and Rebecca, beautiful and costly machinery broken to pieces in Yorkshire, barns and haystacks blazing in Kent, fences and buildings pulled down in Wales. Could such things have been done in a country in which the mind of the labourer had been opened by education, in which he had been taught to find pleasure in the exercise of his intellect; taught to revere his Maker; taught to respect legitimate authority; and taught at the same time to seek the redress of real wrongs by peaceful and constitutional means?"

Macaulay's hearers did not need any explanation of the speaker's references to Ludd, Swing, and Rebecca. The first name would recall the Luddites of the latter part of the eighteenth century, who broke into the newly built factories and smashed the machines because their introduction had thrown people out of work. They were named from Ned Ludd, a half-witted lad of Leicestershire, who seems to have been their leader. America had just won freedom, why should not they? So their "poet" sang:—

> "As the Liberty lads over sea
> Bought their freedom, and cheaply, with blood,
> So we, boys, we
> Will die fighting, or live free,
> And down with all kings but King Ludd."

The second name would remind them how between 1830 and 1833 the agricultural labourers rose in revolt against the use of farm machinery, and how many of the ringleaders sent threatening letters, signed "Captain Swing," to farmers and landowners, while stacks and barns were burnt down in many parts of the country. And the third name would recall the very recent Rebecca riots which took place in Wales in 1843–1844, and the destruction of turnpike gates on public roads at which tolls had to be paid. These risings were not suppressed until the military had been called out, and there was a great deal of bloodshed. The use of the name Rebecca was suggested by a passage in Genesis (chap. xxiv., verse 60), the latter part of which runs "let thy seed possess the gate of those

which hate them." The payment of tolls on public roads was not finally abolished till 1889.

Lord John Russell obtained his small education grant and it was usefully employed, and as time went on the people of the country began to wake up to the fact that the State ought to do still more. But it was not until 1870, when W. E. Gladstone was Liberal Prime Minister for the first time, that elementary education was made general and compulsory. The country was divided into districts, and "School Boards" were elected, charged with the duty of providing and maintaining schools supported partly by the local rates, partly by the government. Twenty-three years later elementary education was made free on the ground that what a citizen was forced to do by the State the State ought to pay for. In 1902 School Boards were abolished, and the work of providing schools was given to borough councils and to the county councils which had been set up for local government in 1888.

The effects of this extension of education were many and varied and always beneficial. One remarkable result was the steady reduction of crime as Macaulay had foreseen. At the beginning of the nineteenth century prisons were overcrowded. Before the end of Queen Victoria's reign the number of offenders against the law had become comparatively small. As education spread public opinion became more enlightened on the matter of punishments, and some efforts were made to reclaim criminals instead of giving them up as hopeless. It was the idea that an offender against the laws of the land would always be a lawbreaker that led to the penalty of death being imposed upon those who had committed such comparatively minor offences as sheep-stealing, rabbit-shooting, poaching, or stealing any article over five shillings in value! Prisons and the necessity for them were not abolished by education, but the modern prison is clean, well lighted, and well ventilated, and the idea behind its punishments is, to some extent, that of reclamation rather than vengeance.

Books to Read.—Charles Dickens's *Barnaby Rudge*; Violet Jacob's *The Sheep-stealers* (Toll-gate riots); Sheila Kaye Smith's *Sussex Gorse*; *Captain Swing*, by Harold Avery; *In Dewisland*, by S. Baring-Gould (Rebecca riots); *Rose Mervyn*, by Anne Beale.

EXERCISE XII

1. Connect your own district with what you have learnt of the history of elementary education. Inquire into the names of schools—for example, is there a National School? If so, when was it opened? If your own school is a Council School, was it ever a Board School?
2. What do you understand by elementary education?
3. If pupils of your school wish to get more education where can they go when they leave? Find out whether this higher school or college was in existence when Queen Victoria came to the throne. If not, find the date of its establishment.
4. Has your town or district any memories of Luddites, Captain Swing, or Rebecca?
5. What did Lord Macaulay mean by "seeking the redress of real grievances by peaceful and constitutional means"?
6. What was wrong in the argument that the introduction of machinery was bad for the workers? What was excusable in their attitude?
7. We say that "the State" pays certain bills. Where does the money come from?
8. What are "the king's taxes"? What taxes are paid in your own home?
9. What are the king's taxes used for?

CHAPTER XIII—FACTORY ACTS AND TRADE UNIONS

We saw in Chapter VI. that even while England was threatened with a French invasion reformers were trying to improve the conditions under which factory workers earned their living.

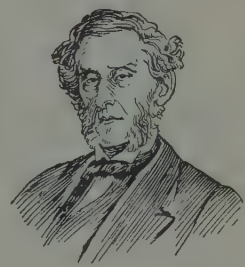
The factory system which won much of the wealth that enabled England to bring the wars with Napoleon to a victorious end was none the less a distinct social evil; and factory workers were at first looked down upon by those who made their living in other ways. Manufacturers found it very hard to get self-respecting people to work in their ill-managed workshops, and they procured much of their labour by taking young people from the workhouses, whom they made apprentices and often worked for sixteen hours a day.

"In stench, in heated rooms, amid the constant whirling of a thousand wheels, little fingers and little feet were kept in ceaseless action, forced into unnatural activity by blows from the heavy hands and feet of the merciless overlooker, and the

infliction of bodily pain with instruments of punishment invented by the sharpened ingenuity of insatiable selfishness."

But the fact that the apprentices were, as paupers, under the guardianship of the State was to their advantage, for this gave the government the right to interfere between employers and employed. The "State," however, really meant a Parliament containing many manufacturers, and it was only after the outbreak of a fearful epidemic in Manchester that a Bill was passed in 1802, reducing the hours of work of these apprentices to twelve per day.

After a great deal of agitation other Factory Acts came into force regulating not only the hours of the younger workers but also the age at which they could be employed. The two most important of these measures were those of 1833 and 1847. The former was partly due to the devoted work of Lord Ashley, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, and it was noteworthy largely because it established the principle of State interference in conditions of labour. It applied to all textile factories, and enacted that children between the ages of nine and thirteen were not to work more than forty-eight hours per week, and were to attend school in their "spare" time; young persons between thirteen and eighteen were not to work more than sixty-eight hours per week; no one under eighteen was to engage in night work—that is, between 8.30 p.m. and 5.30 a.m.; and inspectors of factories were appointed, with powers to enforce the Act. By the Act of 1847 women and children were limited to a ten hours day.



LORD SHAFTESBURY.
(*From the portrait by Millais.*)

"Since 1850," writes a historian,* "legislation has continued to work on the same lines. Truck—that is, the payment of wages otherwise than in the current coin of the realm—has been prohibited; the hours of labour have been steadily reduced; persons working in unhealthy and dangerous occu-

* Dr. F. W. Tickner in *A Social and Industrial History of England* (Arnold and Co.).

pations have been specially protected ; efforts have been made to prevent sweating ; Shop Acts have done something to lessen the hardships of an important class of servants ; the fencing of machinery, the liability of employers, and the rights of compensation for workers have been the means of securing the safety of the labourer whilst engaged in his work."

Workers in the various town industries who lived close together began to combine in associations for improving their position. One interesting method of association was known as co-operation, which aimed at producing and supplying the necessaries of life by societies of the consumers, the profits going, not to a middleman but to the members of the society. The leader in this movement was Robert Owen, a millowner of New Lanark, who showed by his own regulations that mill work could be carried on in a decent manner and yet be conducted profitably. Co-operative Associations were formed in many towns of the Midlands, the North of England, and Southern Scotland, and the movement proved to be of great social value.

ROBERT OWEN.

Workmen also began to combine to form Trades Unions, which after a bitter struggle obtained a legal standing of a kind in 1872, when they were given registration as friendly societies. They were largely concerned with hours of work and rates of wages as well as with the management of "strikes," which were often met by "lock-outs" on the part of the employers. Trade union representatives were elected as members of Parliament for the first time in 1874, and in 1875 an Act was passed allowing the unions the right of "peaceful persuasion" by means of pickets during a strike.

BOOKS TO READ.—*Early Victorian*, by S. G. Tallentyre ; *A Suffolk Courtship*, by M. Betham Edwards ; *Joseph Vance*, by William de Morgan ; *The Weavers*, by Gilbert Parker ; *The History of Aythan Waring*, by Violet Jacob ; *John Goodchild*, by R. W. Wright-Henderson ; *Mary Barton*, by Mrs. Gaskell.

Read also poems entitled "The Cry of the Children," by Mrs. E. B. Browning, and "The Song of the Shirt," by Thomas Hood.

EXERCISE XIII

1. What can you deduce from the provisions of the Factory Act of 1833 as to the conditions of labour before that date ?
2. Can you connect your own town or district with the Co-operative Movement ?
3. What factories or mills are to be found in your town or district, and what commodities are produced in them ? Do you know anything about their management ?
4. What is meant by " Workmen's Compensation " ?
5. What does the Labour Movement owe to the fact that manufacturers in the early days went to the workhouses for many of their employees ?
6. What is meant by " sweating " ?
7. What are the duties of pickets ?
8. Find out what is meant by " Industrial Arbitration," and discuss its value in the prevention of strikes and lock-outs.

CHAPTER XIV—THE YEAR OF REVOLUTIONS

We have been so closely concerned with home or domestic affairs that we have forgotten that Britain was still a very active European country. But it was the reforms which were brought about during the first half of the nineteenth century in Britain that kept the country from sharing in the disturbing revolutionary movements which took place near the middle of that century in other European countries.

The year 1848 has become known in European history as " the year of revolutions." In France " history repeated itself," for there was a kind of reproduction in little of the French Revolution. Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, had become a " Citizen King " in 1830, having taken the place of the monarch of the old régime Charles X., whose autocratic rule had led to his enforced abdication. At first all went well, for the new king had the strong support of the middle classes, but Louis proved personally unpopular, and there were many conflicting parties in the country narrowly watching their own chances of obtaining the controlling power.

Meetings were held, in which there was much clamour for " reform " such as Britain had obtained. The king, forgetful of Louis XVI., tried to stop such meetings, and called out the

National Guard, which went over to the side of the people. After vain attempts to assert his authority Louis Philippe abdicated in favour of his grandson, the Comte de Paris, but a Republic was proclaimed. Before long there were dissensions among the new leaders, and Louis Napoleon, nephew of the first Napoleon (who had been an exile in England and had served as a special constable during the Chartist riots), took the opportunity of getting himself elected as President. This was in December 1848. The excitement in France was intense, and the name of Napoleon was one to conjure with, for France, forgetful of her miseries, was nursing " memories of the Napoleonic legend and dreams of a glorious future." It is worth noting that with the consent of the British Government the remains of the first Napoleon had been brought from St. Helena in 1840, and had been interred with great pomp in the Invalides in Paris.

Three years later came the *Coup-d'État.* During the night of December 1, 1851, Paris was placed under military control, and Napoleon took over the government. More than 25,000 Frenchmen who were likely to prove troublesome were sent into exile or transported to convict settlements abroad. Fears of a new Reign of Terror made the upper and middle classes rally to the support of Napoleon, and he was elected President for ten years. But he was really a king and an autocratic one, and in 1852 he was proclaimed Emperor as Napoleon III. and recognized by the Powers of Europe, who could do no other. The new Emperor now set out to emulate still further his distinguished ancestor, by watching for opportunities to win " glory " for French troops in European wars.

There were also revolutionary risings in Italy in the year 1848. That country was divided into the Austrian territories in the north, the Papal States in the centre, and the kingdom of Naples in the south, the two latter divisions being also more or less under Austria's control. But there was also a State which united Piedmont and Sardinia, and which contained a strong national party determined to drive out the Austrians, bring the Pope's power as a temporal prince to an end, overthrow the kingship in Naples, and make the whole peninsula a united Italian country with its capital at Rome. The man who inspired this movement was Giuseppe Mazzini, a political

A MEETING OF GARIBALDI AND VICTOR EMMANUEL, THE SON OF KING CHARLES ALBERT.
(From the painting by H. C. Ademollo. Brogi photo.)

dreamer who wished to see Italy a republic, but was ready to follow, or at least to use, Charles Albert, King of Piedmont, as a leader who might realize at least part of his dream.

In 1848 there were risings in Italy, but nothing very definite was accomplished. Mazzini had as his associate Garibaldi, who was not only a dreamer but a practical soldier, and who had joined the "Young Italy" party in his early manhood, and soon became one of its leaders. King Charles Albert did not like him or his ideas, for though he also wanted to see Italy united, yet he wanted it to be a kingdom with himself as the master of it. But the king made use of the soldier in his fight against Austrian control in Italy, though at first progress was very slow. Garibaldi and Mazzini did, however, succeed in setting up a Roman Republic with Mazzini as its President. But Louis Napoleon restored the Pope to power as a temporal prince at the head of the "Papal States" of Central Italy. The complete unity of Italy was to be achieved at a later date.

Hungary as well as a great part of Italy was literally "under the heel" of the Hapsburg emperors of Austria, and "the year of revolutions" saw a national rising of the Hungarians. In this country the people's leader was Louis Kossuth, who, like Garibaldi and other European revolutionary leaders, was a great admirer of British freedom. He allied himself with General Görgei, and the insurgents were able to proclaim a Hungarian Republic in 1849, with Kossuth as President. But the Austrian power reasserted itself and Kossuth became an exile in England, where he spoke at many meetings, urging his hearers to extend practical help towards the Hungarians, "rightly struggling to be free." He gained much sympathy, but no government support, and Hungary remained a subject country.

BOOKS TO READ.—*Ishmael*, by Miss Braddon (Napoleon III.); *Journeyman Love*, by Mrs. Stepney Rawson, and *A Romance of the Tuileries*, by F. Gribble (Revolution in France in 1848); *Mademoiselle Mori* by Miss Roberts, *Dr. Antonio* by G. D. Ruffini, and *Vittoria* by George Meredith (Italian Revolution, 1848); *The Baron's Sons*, by M. Jokai (Hungarian Revolution, 1848).

EXERCISE XIV

1. Make all possible connections between the European history which you have been reading and that of your own country.
2. Is there any connection between your own district and the Euro-

pean movements and events of which you have just read? The slightest point of contact will bring these far-off events home to you.

3. Study this map, showing Italy before her unification :—

Point out the kingdom of Piedmont and Sardinia (Charles Albert), the Papal States, ruled by the Pope as a temporal prince, and the kingdom of Naples or the Two Sicilies; Nice, where Garibaldi was born; and Rome, destined to become the capital of a united and liberated Italy.

4. Why did Louis Kossuth come to England after the fall of the Hungarian Republic?

THE CAPTURE OF THE MALAKOFF BY THE FRENCH.
(*From the painting by Adolphe Yvon.*)

CHAPTER XV—THE CRIMEAN WAR AND THE INDIAN MUTINY

In 1850 Sir Robert Peel was thrown from his horse and killed. He had done much for his country in connection with home affairs, and we may regard his time of office as a period of distinct social advance. The next Prime Minister of note, Lord Palmerston, had served as Foreign Secretary, and his great aim was to make his country strong abroad.

In 1853 British statesmen were still making changes in the social life of the people. This was the year in which W. E. Gladstone, as Chancellor of the Exchequer under Lord Aberdeen at the head of a Coalition Ministry, took a further step towards making Britain a Free Trade country by removing duties from a large number of articles in common use. But in a very short time it became clear that public attention was to be diverted to foreign affairs, for in 1854 the Crimean War began—our only European contest during Queen Victoria's reign.

In this war, which was fought in the Crimean Peninsula to the north of the Black Sea, we stood side by side with France and Turkey against Russia. Our real reason for entering into the struggle was to prevent the Tsar from sending troops into Turkey, as it was thought he might seize Constantinople and disturb the "balance of power" in South-Eastern Europe, so that our interests in that part of the Continent, as well as our hold upon India, might be endangered.

The war is now generally considered to have been a great mistake, and in its first stages it was very badly conducted by the Aberdeen Government. The Russians were indeed driven back at the battles of the Alma and Balaklava, the latter engagement being made memorable by that glorious blunder the Charge of the Light Brigade; at Inkerman, too, the Russians were checked, but with very heavy loss on the part of the allies. But the soldiers suffered terribly during the winter months in the trenches before the great fortress of Sebastopol. The bad management of the war roused so much anger in the country that Lord Aberdeen, the Prime Minister, was forced to resign, and Palmerston took his place.

Under his vigorous management matters steadily improved. Military hospitals were established at Scutari, near Constantinople, and Florence Nightingale went out with a staff of nurses to undertake the work which won for her undying fame, and led to the establishment of staffs of trained nurses for service in time of war.

After eleven months of siege, and a brilliant attack by the French, the Russians withdrew from Sebastopol, and the war came to an end. The chief result of the struggle was that Britain, France, and Austria entered into a joint agreement to prevent any encroachment upon the Turkish Empire, as it was believed that the break-up of that country might ultimately lead to a general conflict in Europe. Turkey in Europe was supposed to be nearing its end. "We have on our hands," Tsar Nicholas had said, "a sick man—a very sick man; it will be a great misfortune if one of these days he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made."

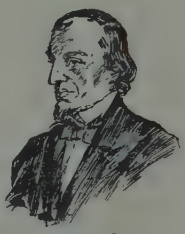
The Crimean War was no sooner ended than serious trouble arose in India. About the time of Waterloo the British possessions in that country comprised only about one fourth of the territories which are now under our direct control and which comprise British India. These territories were gradually extended during Queen Victoria's reign by various campaigns which we were forced to undertake if we wished to retain our hold upon India at all.

We fought with the brave Mahrattas of Central India, and after a severe struggle brought their lands under our control; with the Burmese, and took from them a large territory beyond the Ganges; with the Afghans on the north-west frontier, where lies the land-gate to India from Eastern Europe which was supposed to be threatened by Russian activities; and with the brave Sikhs, who, after much fighting in the Punjab, were finally subdued. We also took every opportunity of annexing vassal states whenever ruling native houses died out, and we dethroned the ruler of the kingdom of Oudh for rank misgovernment. So the work of extending British power in India went on, until in 1857 it received a serious though temporary check.

At that time the native or Sepoy troops under British

officers outnumbered our own soldiers in India by six to one, and for various reasons there was grave discontent among them. In May 1857 a revolt broke out in Oudh and the North-West Provinces, and during the progress of this Indian Mutiny, as the rising is known in history, there was grave danger of a general rising which might completely destroy our power in the peninsula.

The fighting centred round the towns of Delhi, Cawnpore, and Lucknow. At Cawnpore there was a cruel massacre of British women and children, whose mutilated bodies were thrown into a well. A large native force took possession of Delhi, proclaimed a native prince as Mogul or Emperor, and it was only after desperate fighting that the city fell again into the hands of the British. The defence of Lucknow and its final relief by Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde, provided one of the most stirring chapters of the whole of our long and varied military history.



DISRAELI.

After the Mutiny had been suppressed the rule of the East India Company was brought to an end, and the government of the country was transferred to the British crown. Nearly twenty years later Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield and Conservative Prime Minister, arranged for the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Empress of India, a ceremony which was carried out with great pomp and display.

BOOKS TO READ.—*Ravenshoe*, by Henry Kingsley; *Two Years Ago*, by Charles Kingsley; *The Interpreter*, by G. J. Whyte Melville; *Seeta*, by Meadows Taylor; *The Dilemma*, by Sir George Chesney; *On the Face of the Waters*, by Mrs. F. A. Steel; *Flotsam*, by H. Seton Merriman; *For the Old Flag*, by Clive Robert Fenn; *Eight Days*, by R. E. Forrest; *The Peril of the Sword*, by Colonel Harcourt; *By Celia's Arbour*, by W. Besant and J. Rice.

Read also Tennyson's Poem, "The Charge of the Light Brigade," Longfellow's poem, "Santa Filomena," and the life of Lawrence in the "Men of Action" Series.

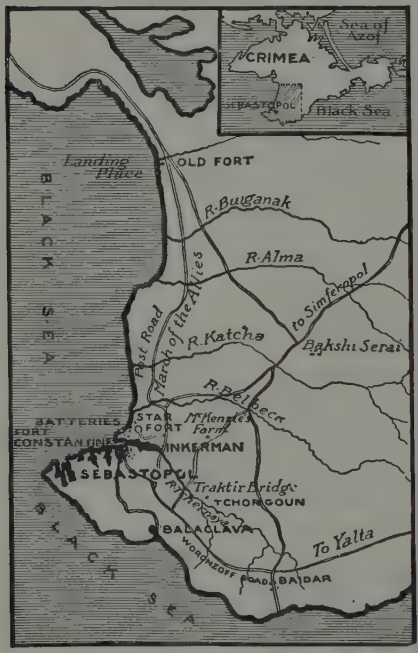
EXERCISE XV

1. Write a paragraph on the Charge of the Light Brigade at Balaklava from the following notes:—

October 25, 1854.—Russians taking cannon from captured Turkish redoubts, Lord Raglan ordered Light Brigade to

charge and save guns. Officer receiving order thought he meant to charge a Russian battery in centre of line. 607 men rode for the guns; 198 returned. French general, Bosquet, said: "It is magnificent, but it is not war."

2. Trace the Crimean campaign on the small map. Find out Constantinople in a larger map, and Scutari, where Florence Nightingale had her hospital.



THE CRIMEAN PENINSULA.

3. Connect the Crimean War with military hospital nursing.
4. Find out the date of the Battle of Plassey. Who fought this battle? What was its significance in the history of British India? How many years after this battle did the Indian Mutiny break out?
5. What connection was there between the Crimean War and our hold upon India?
6. Discuss our presence in India. Connect your discussion with the following words by H. H. Asquith:—
   "In India, whatever we won by the sword we hold and we retain by the more splendid title of just and disinterested rule, not of a despot, but of a trustee."
7. Trace connections between your own town or district and the story of the Crimean War.
8. Had your own town or district any direct connection with the Indian Mutiny?

CHAPTER XVI—THE EXTENSION OF THE EMPIRE

TRAFALGAR and Waterloo prepared the way for that extension and development of the British Empire which is one of the remarkable features of our history during the nineteenth century. The former gave the British Navy the freedom of the seas, while the latter gave her peace with her chief rival in colonial expansion, namely, France. We have learnt something about India during the first three quarters of the "wonderful century," and we shall now consider what was happening to British settlers in other parts of the world.

AUSTRALASIA

It was Captain James Cook who in the latter part of the eighteenth century carried the British flag to the countries which were to be known as New Zealand and Australia. But it was only after Waterloo that Australia was really "discovered" as a colony, and Britain began to send out some of her best stock-farmers, who started sheep-runs which prospered greatly. In 1851 gold was discovered in New South Wales, and a little later in Victoria. There was a frantic rush to the gold-fields, and many men grew more or less suddenly very wealthy, and left Australia for home, while others were not so immediately successful, and remained in the country as farmers, to their ultimate advantage.

The island continent was gradually divided into a number of colonies or states—New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, West Australia, South Australia, and Tasmania. At first they were independent and somewhat jealous of each other, but as time went on there arose a desire for union or federation, and in the year that Queen Victoria died the Commonwealth of Australia was born. It was to be a new Britain across the sea, a daughter nation, owning allegiance and affection to the Mother Country, but mistress of her own affairs.

The twin islands of New Zealand, first circumnavigated by Captain Cook, were not colonized until the early years of Queen Victoria's reign. Here the question of ownership of the land called for settlement before a British state could be founded,

GOLD-SEEKERS AT BATHURST, WESTERN AUSTRALIA, ON THEIR WAY TO THE FIELDS AT OPHIR, 1851.
(*From a print published at Sydney, New South Wales, in* 1851.)

for the native race known as the Maoris was in possession, and though they were treated, on the whole, as landlords by the British, there were several quarrels before the two races settled down amicably. New Zealand was also divided into six colonies which gradually drew together, but it was not until 1907 that another daughter nation was born, and was christened the Dominion of New Zealand.

Canada

After the capture of Quebec and Montreal by the British, Canada grew slowly but surely until, at the time of Waterloo, there were six colonies, known as Lower Canada (afterwards Quebec), Upper Canada (afterwards Ontario), New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, while to the north lay the territories of the Hudson Bay Company, and there were also the beginnings of a colony in what is now known as British Columbia.

As time went on, troubles arose in matters of local government and control by the Mother Country. It began to be felt that there ought to be a union of the colonies ; but there were many difficulties in the way into which we need not

enter here. At last, in 1867, the "Dominion of Canada" was set up, which was to include Quebec and Ontario, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. At a later date Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta were parcelled out of the rich prairie lands of the Middle West, and were added to the Confederation, while British Columbia came in on condition that the Dominion Government built a railway connecting the province with the eastern towns and the Atlantic coast. Prince Edward Island joined in 1873, but Newfoundland remained outside the Dominion, and, indeed, had never considered herself part of Canada at all.

Canadian Federation quickly led to greater prosperity in the Dominion, which eventually became a great granary for the Empire. The Act which set up the Dominion provided for a form of government "similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom." Here was another free partner for the Mother Country. That name of "Empire" seems to be out of place, suggesting a lifted sword. It is not surprising that some thinkers and writers have used the name of the "British Commonwealth" to denote the ring of British nations which are now set round the world.

South Africa

The old Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope was added to the Empire after the final overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte. Cape Colony did not then extend to the Orange River, and it was peopled by a comparatively small number of Dutch farmers or Boers, who worked their farms largely by means of native labour.

When British emigrants began to make their appearance in South Africa, the Boers keenly resented their presence, and many of them "trekked" into the more northerly districts as well as into Natal to found new homes for themselves. The British Government, however, eventually took over their settlement in Natal, and this step was followed by another Boer trek inland, where the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic were established about the middle of the nineteenth century.

The British settlers in Cape Colony had several wars with the Kaffirs before they finally secured the whole of the land

which lies to the south of the Orange River. Then diamonds were discovered in the Kimberley district to the north of that river, and many of the British colonists moved to this region, greatly to the discontent of the Boers.

Meanwhile the Dutch colonists of the Transvaal had become embroiled in fierce struggles with the natives, and were in serious difficulties. In 1877 the British Government, in the interests of peace on their own borders, annexed the Transvaal, and made war upon the Zulu tribes to the south, who were only subdued after a severe struggle. Then the Boers of the Transvaal rose against the British, defeated them at Laing's Nek and Majuba, and were granted self-government under the suzerainty of Britain.

As the years passed by British settlements were made to the north and west of the Transvaal. When gold was discovered in that colony, large numbers of British and other Europeans flocked to the mines. These were known to the Boers as "Uitlanders" (outlanders, or foreigners), and they were refused political rights in the country. The British Government attempted to obtain for them as taxpayers some share in the control of affairs, but the negotiations were fruitless, and in 1899 the Boer War began.

At first the struggle went against the British, and it was only when Lords Roberts and Kitchener took over the management of the war that success attended our efforts. In 1901 the Orange Free State was annexed by Britain and re-named the Orange River Colony, and a little later the Transvaal also became part of the British Empire. Peace was signed at Vereeniging in 1902, and five years later the two new colonies were made self-governing states like Cape Colony and Natal.

In 1909 the whole of South Africa was united under a "Union" Government, in which Britons and Boers worked together. This result was brought about only a year before the death of Edward VII., whose short reign is distinguished by this happy arrangement between the Mother Country and one of her daughter states.

Britain in Egypt

The reign of Queen Victoria saw our establishment in Egypt, which forms a kind of halfway house on the way to India. This country was nominally a province of Turkey, but

its government was practically in the hands of the British, who had purchased in 1875 a large share in the Suez Canal.

Britain did not obtain influence in this part of Africa without an effort. On account of debts and other difficulties, Egypt had been placed under the joint control of Great Britain and France. A section of the Egyptians rose against them, under an officer named Arabi Pasha, and it was not until Alexandria had been bombarded by a British fleet and a battle had been fought at Tel-el-Kebir that the rising was quelled. France refused to take her share in these operations against the rebels, and as a result Britain assumed sole responsibility and control of the country.

GENERAL GORDON.

For a considerable time Egypt had been extending her influence in the vast region of the Sudan, which lies to the southward. In 1872 a British officer named Charles George Gordon had acted as governor of these provinces, and had done a great deal to check the slave trade carried on by the Arabs before he returned home to England. Not long after he left the Sudan, the whole district rose in rebellion against the Egyptian Government, under a Mohammedan leader known as the Mahdi or Prophet.

After an Egyptian force, under an English general, had been defeated, it was decided that the Sudan should be abandoned, and General Gordon was sent to Khartum to superintend the work of bringing away the Egyptian garrisons. Here he was surrounded and besieged by the troops of the Mahdi. Help was sent to him, but too late. Khartum fell into the hands of the Mahdi's troops, and Gordon met his death.

Eleven years later Sir Herbert Kitchener, who had spent many years in building up an Egyptian army, began the operations which were destined to recover the Sudan for Egypt. His campaign was entirely successful. Khartum was retaken, and the Arab forces fled into the desert, only to be finally defeated at a later date. Thus by British power order was re-established in this region of Africa, which forms an extensive territory full of undeveloped wealth, and of the highest importance to Egypt, since it controls the water supply of the Nile. The Egyptian Sudan passed under the joint rule of Great Britain and Egypt.

In 1922 Egypt was recognized as an independent sovereign state under a king and a native ministry, but arrangements were made for securing British communications in the country.

BOOKS TO READ.—*Swallow*, by H. Rider Haggard (South Africa in 1836); *The War of the Axe*, by J. Percy Groves (South Africa about 1840); *Sword and Assegai*, by Anna Howarth (South Africa, 1846–51); *The Web of the Spider*, by H. B. Marriott Watson, and *War to the Knife*, by Rolf Boldrewood (New Zealand War); *It Is Never Too Late to Mend*, by Charles Reade (Australian goldfields, 1851); *Geoffrey Hamlyn*, by Henry Kingsley, and *The Squatter's Dream*, by Rolf Boldrewood (Australian bush life); *Denis Dent*, by E. W. Hornung (Ballarat goldfields about 1853 and Crimean War); *Katrina, a Tale of the Karoo* (South Africa about 1859); *In Treaty with Honor*, by Mary Catherine Crowley (Quebec and French Canada); *Rose and Minnie*, by F. Ward (Canada in 1837); *Fire, Snow, and Water*, by E. S. Ellis (Hudson Bay, 1860–70); *Raw Gold*, by Bertrand W. Sinclair (North-West America, 1874).

EXERCISE XVI

1. Consider and confirm, or criticize, the following description of the British Empire by H. H. Asquith :—

"We are a great world-wide, peace-loving partnership. By the wisdom and the courage of our forefathers, by great deeds of heroism and adventure by land and sea, by the tried and tested experience of many generations, we have built up a Dominion which is buttressed by the two pillars of liberty and law. . . .

"We are not vain enough or foolish enough to think that, in the course of a long process, there have not been blunders, and that to-day our Dominion does not fall short of what it ought to be. But such as we have received it, and such as we hope to have it, with it we are content.

"We do not covet other people's territory. . . . We have no desire to impose our rule upon alien populations. The British Empire is enough for us. All that we wish for now is to be allowed peaceably to consolidate our own resources; to raise within the Empire the level of common opportunity; to draw closer the bond of affection and confidence between its parts; and to make it everywhere the worthy home of the best traditions of British liberty."

2. Can you recall any blunders in Britain's Empire-building?
3. Discuss the suitability of the terms British Empire, British Commonwealth, United States of Britain.
4. What is it which really unites the British Empire, in spite of the great distances between its various parts?
5. There is an Empire within the British Empire. What is its name?

CHAPTER XVII—THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

A FAMILY quarrel in the United States does not seem to concern us very closely. But we may be able to find some points of contact with our own affairs as we go on, and we have agreed that Britain is always more or less concerned with great events in the history of other modern nations.

The American Civil War began in 1861 and lasted until 1865, and it is often spoken of as the War of Secession. The two parties were the Federals and the Confederates, the former being, generally speaking, the people of the Northern States, and the latter those of the Southern States. In the Southern States negro slaves were still employed on the cotton and sugar plantations, and the people of the Northern States objected to slavery being permitted within the American territories. The dispute went on for a long time before actual fighting commenced, and the Southerners proposed that they should form a separate Confederacy, in which the employment of negro slaves should be permitted. They wished to "secede" from the Union, and the Northerners objected to this, believing that it would be better for all concerned if the United States should remain true to its name.

The chief figure in the war on the Federal side was Abraham Lincoln, who became President. He did all he could to prevent war, and pleaded earnestly with the Southerners to "save the Union." But the dispute came to blows in April 1861, when the Confederates attacked Fort Sumter in the harbour of Charleston city in South Carolina. Lincoln made an appeal for fighting men, and some five million Northerners volunteered for active service.

The Confederates were, however, better prepared for the coming fight, and had better military leaders, and at the battle of Bull Run, near Washington, the Federals were beaten, while Lincoln found it difficult to prevent the occupation of the capital by the Southern troops. It was at the battle of Bull Run that Jackson, the Confederate leader, gained his nickname of Stonewall. His leader, General Lee, called out to his men, "Look at Jackson's brigade standing like a stone wall!"

After a time the Northerners found a capable leader in

General Ulysses Grant, and the war went on with varying fortune. There was a battle of six days' duration at Chancellorsville, which ended in the repulse of the Federals. Stonewall Jackson was mortally wounded in this fight. A few days later he died. "Pass the infantry to the front," he called out with his dying breath. "Tell Major Hawks—" He lay for a few minutes and then added quietly, "Let us cross over the river and rest under the shade of the trees."

At Gettysburg, in July 1863, Lee was decisively defeated by General Mead, to the great joy of the Northerners. The struggle dragged on for two years longer, until Lee surrendered to General Grant in April 1865. The victory of the North saved the Union and put an end to slavery in the whole of the country. Lincoln set to work to "bind up the nation's wounds," but ere many weeks had passed he fell at the hands of an assassin who shot him during a theatrical performance.

The British Government remained strictly neutral during the war. The sympathies of the British people were divided. The Confederates sent envoys on the British mail steamer *Trent* to ask for the help of Britain and France, and on the way the vessel was stopped by a Federal warship, and the Confederate agents were seized. The British Government threatened war on the North if the agents were not surrendered. This was done, and war was fortunately averted.

Owing to the blockade of their ports by the Northerners the Confederates could not export their cotton, and as a consequence the cotton districts of Lancashire suffered very severely. The Lancashire operatives, who believed that slavery was wrong, suffered patiently, hoping for the victory of the Federals. Relief funds were opened, and by means of the large sums raised throughout the Empire Lancashire was enabled to pass through her time of trial.

Many British merchants, however, fitted out fast steamers for the purpose of "running the blockade" and obtaining cargoes of cotton, which could be sold at a high price. The Confederates, greatly daring, ordered a swift warship, afterwards known as the *Alabama*, from a Birkenhead firm of shipbuilders, and the vessel put to sea before her real character was officially discovered by the British Government. The vessel did effective work for her owners during the next two

years, and many of the Federals were very angry with the British for allowing her to leave their shores.

At last the *Alabama* was tracked by a Northern warship named the *Kearsarge*, and a fight took place near Cherbourg in which the Confederate vessel was completely shattered. The Northerners then claimed compensation from the British for the damage she had done, and for a time there was a possibility of war over the dispute. But the British Government, of which W. E. Gladstone was at that time the head, managed to get the matter submitted to arbitration, and the result was that Britain had to pay £3,200,000 as damages.

BOOKS TO READ.—*Uncle Tom's Cabin*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe; *The Battle Ground*, by Ellen Glasgow; *The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*, by John Fox; *The Crisis*, by Winston Churchill; *The Red Badge of Courage*, by Stephen Crane; *Who Goes There?* and *Friend with the Countersign*, by B. K. Benson; *The Cavalier*, by George W. Cable; *The Vagabond*, by F. Palmer; *Henry Bourland*, by Albert Elmer Hancock; *Red Rock*, by T. Nelson Page; *Before the Crisis*, by F. B. Mott; *John Rigdon*, by C. P. Plant; *The Patriots of the South*, by Cyrus T. Brady; *Rhoda of the Undergrounds*, by Florence F. Kelly; *A Lincoln Conscript*, by Homer Greene.

EXERCISE XVII

1. Name the chief Northern and the chief Southern States.
2. Discuss negro slavery in the United States, remembering—
   (1) The great difference in climate between North and South;
   (2) The usefulness of African labour for cotton and sugar plantations;
   (3) That the Northern States never employed, and did not need, slave labour in industry;
   (4) Many of the planters were very good to their slaves;
   (5) Many of the slaves did not wish to be freed.
3. When new states were carved out farther west, the question became insistent: Were they to be free or slave states? John Brown of the new state of Kansas said "free," and in 1859 took steps with his sons to back his opinion by force. He was caught by his enemies and hanged, but his ideas survived. Hence the famous lines—

   "John Brown's body lies a-mouldering in the grave,
   But his soul goes marching on."

4. Many Northerners helped slaves from the Southern States to escape from their masters, passing them on from one sympathetic family to another by the "Underground Railway." Where could a safe terminus be found for this railway?
5. Can you make any connection between your own town or district and the history of the American Civil War?
6. Write down all you know about Abraham Lincoln.

THE "ALABAMA."

(From a sketch by Charles W. Wyllie.)

CHAPTER XVIII—GERMAN AND ITALIAN UNITY

After Waterloo the numerous German states of Central Europe, including Austria, but not Prussia, were united in a Confederation which lasted until 1866. During this interval of half a century Prussia and Austria became keen rivals for the leadership of the German peoples. They went to war in 1866, and Prussia won a great victory at Sadowa, or Königgratz, in Bohemia. After this war Austria was separated from the Confederation, and Prussia took the lead. Then came the Franco-Prussian War.

In 1870 France was once more an Empire under Napoleon III., who provoked a quarrel with Prussia, and soon had cause to regret his action; for the German army was well prepared for war, and quickly appeared upon French soil, refraining, however, from marching through Belgium, whose integrity had been guaranteed in 1839 by France, Britain, and Prussia. At Sedan the French were utterly defeated. Two days later France was once more a republic, and the new government was hastily preparing for the defence of Paris against the Germans, who in a few days invested the city. The siege lasted for about four months, and while it was going on the new German Empire was set up. This event took place at the Palace of Versailles, not far from Paris, where William IV., King of Prussia, was staying with his generals and the statesman Bismarck, who had done so much to advance Prussia.

The great success of the German armies had strengthened the desire among the leaders for a closer union among the various states which they represented; and the princes decided to ask William IV. of Prussia to become Kaiser William I. of the German Empire; so a new state came into existence which after a generation was to join issue with Britain. At this time there was a good deal of sympathy in England for Prussia, though the fallen Emperor of France and the Empress Eugénie had found a refuge at Chislehurst, near London. After the fall of Paris on January 28, 1871, peace was made, France giving up about half of Lorraine and the whole of

Alsace. She agreed to pay a huge indemnity. and produced the money quickly in order to get rid of the German army of occupation in north-eastern France. So Germany came into the ring of Great Powers, and by her industry and gifts of organization soon showed that she was capable of playing a prominent part in world affairs. She also began to look abroad for suitable colonies, but found most of the best localities already occupied by Britain or France.

France did not forget her defeat and the occupation of Paris by German troops. As Germany became more and more powerful Russia and France began to draw together. Russia and Britain were, however, distrustful of each other. In 1877–78 there was a war in which Russia fought Turkey on behalf of the Christian peoples of the Balkan Peninsula, among whom were many people of Slav origin, who looked upon the Tsar as their natural protector. The Russian armies came within a short distance of Constantinople, when the Turks asked for a truce. In the settlement that followed at the Berlin Congress the Great Powers took a share. One of the provisions of this arrangement was that Bosnia was to be given to Austria, and this prepared the way for the tragedy of Serajevo (see page 90) in 1914, which was one of the immediate though not one of the deeper causes of the Great War of 1914–18.

In the same year that the new German Empire was set up —that is, 1870—Italy became a free and united nation. A reference to Chapter XIV. will serve to remind you how matters stood in that country in the middle of the nineteenth century. In 1859 the Italian patriots resumed their struggle for liberation with France as their ally. A brilliant victory over the Austrians was won at Magenta by the French general, MacMahon, and Milan, the capital of the Austrian province of Lombardy, was occupied. A fortnight later King Victor Emmanuel of Piedmont fought the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria at Solferino, and the Austrians were so badly beaten that Napoleon III. thought it wiser for himself to come to terms with their emperor. The Italian patriots were greatly disappointed, for Venetia was still in Austrian hands.

Meanwhile the Italian statesman, Count Cavour, who had made a careful study of British methods of government, persuaded several of the Italian duchies to join Piedmont, and

PROCLAMATION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE AT VERSAILLES, JANUARY 18, 1871.
(From the picture by Anton von Werner.)

then helped Garibaldi in his plans for adding the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to the growing Italy. The latter was leader of a body of volunteers, known as the "thousand heroes," and after some fighting he marched triumphantly into Naples, which accepted Victor Emmanuel as king.

For a time Turin was the capital of the New Italy, but Rome was the desire of the patriots. When Austria fought Prussia in 1866 Italy sided with the latter, though without much effect, and as a reward secured Venetia at the end of the war. There remained only the Papal states, and Garibaldi, at the head of his "Red Shirts," defeated the soldiers of the Pope, but the French fought against him, and he was forced to wait for a more favourable opportunity.

It came in 1870, when French troops were drawn from Italian soil to defend their own land against the Germans. The Italian troops marched into Rome, and the Pope withdrew to his palace of the Vatican shorn of his temporal power as an Italian prince. In 1874 Rome became the capital of a free and united Italy, and four years later Garibaldi, now a helpless invalid, took his seat in an Italian Parliament.

BOOKS TO READ.—*For Sceptre and Crown*, by G. Samarow, and *Maid, Wife, or Widow*, by Mrs. Alexander (Prussia and Austria in 1866); *John of Gerisau*, by John Oxenham, and *Lorraine*, by R. W. Chambers (Franco-German War); *The Isle of Unrest*, by H. Seton Merriman (Corsica in 1870); *Valentin*, by Henry Kingsley (Sedan); *The Garden of Swords*, by Max Pemberton; *Ashes of Empire* and *The Maids of Paradise*, by R. W. Chambers; *Under the Iron Flail*, by John Oxenham; *The Drums of War*, by H. de Vere Stacpoole; *The American in Paris*, by E. Coleman Savidge; *Ringed by Fire*, by E. Everett-Green; *Josephine's Troubles*, by Percy H. Fitzgerald.

EXERCISE XVIII

1. Point out Constantinople, Bosnia, Serajevo, Serbia, and Belgrade.
2. Study the picture on page 84, and find out King William IV. of Prussia, Otto von Bismarck, and Von Moltke, the leading Prussian general. The Crown Prince Friedrich of Prussia, on his father's right, married a daughter of Queen Victoria, and was the father of Kaiser William II.
3. Compare the steps by which Germany and Italy respectively achieved unity.
4. What was the relationship of Germany and Italy to Austria?
5. Who was Bismarck's parallel in Italy?
6. Who was Garibaldi's parallel (if any existed) in Germany?

CHAPTER XIX—HOME AFFAIRS (1870–1918)

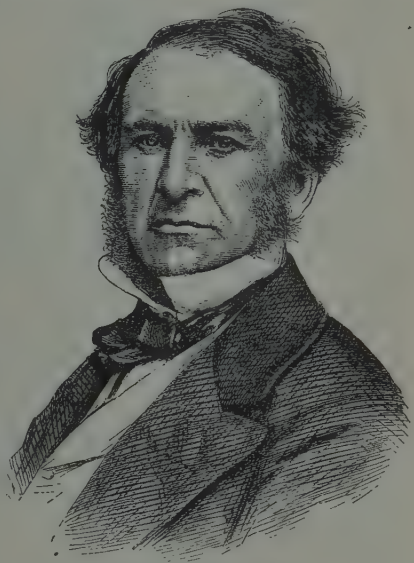
THE latter part of the nineteenth century was a time of considerable progress at home, and we have already noted some of the changes which made life more comfortable and interesting. Many of the changes for the better centre round the increased regard for education, and especially round the English Education Act of 1870. It is true that this Act was concerned only with the elements of instruction; but as the new generation which had attended the elementary schools grew up there arose an increased demand for higher instruction, and many advanced schools, colleges, and institutes were built both in London and the larger provincial towns during the last three decades of the nineteenth and the first years of the twentieth centuries.

In 1888 a Local Government Act was passed for England and Wales under which County Councils were set up. The country was divided into sixty-three county areas, each with a separate County Council. The members of this council were to be councillors elected by the ratepayers, including women ratepayers, every three years, and aldermen elected by the councillors for six years, half of whom were to retire every three years. The councils were to take control of the police, to care for the insane, to maintain roads, and after 1902 were also given the control of education. The London County Council was naturally one of the largest and most important of these new bodies, which were soon in working order and made many changes which were for the good of the community. In 1894 a Parish Councils Act was passed, which set up Parish Councils in the country villages, and Parish meetings in small villages of less than three hundred persons. Rural and Urban District Councils were also formed to deal specially with such things as the relief of the poor and the health of the people. In other areas Boards of Guardians have the charge of the poor. All these councils, which conduct the "local government" of the country, are under the control of the Local Government Board in London.

The year 1908 is marked in home history by the intro-

duction of Old Age Pensions, which were granted to persons over seventy years of age who had little or no means of support. An Insurance Act followed in 1912, which provided for insurance against sickness and unemployment. These were important social changes which affected a large number of people.

We have already made some reference to the various steps taken towards making Britain a Free Trade country. As time went on a movement grew up for making a change in this matter. In 1903 Mr. Joseph Chamberlain proposed that small duties should be levied on foreign corn, meat, dairy produce, and manufactured goods, so as to give a *preference* to the British colonies, whose products were to come into our ports free of duty. Many people were in favour of these measures of "Tariff Reform," and the matter was, and still is, keenly debated. But it belongs rather to present-day politics than to history.



MR. GLADSTONE IN 1869.
(*From a photograph.*)

During the period we are considering there was much discontent in Ireland, and when William Ewart Gladstone became Prime Minister in 1880 he set to work to try to allay this dissatisfaction. He introduced certain measures into Parliament, the objects of which were to deal more fairly with the Roman Catholics in Ireland, and to settle the standing quarrels between the landlords and their tenants.

But there was now a strong party among the Irish leaders

who said that Ireland would never be really contented until her own separate Parliament was restored to her. In 1886 Gladstone announced that he had definitely decided to meet the wishes of these Home Rulers, and framed a Bill for the establishment of a separate Parliament in Dublin. This displeased not only the Conservatives, his political opponents, but also a number of the Liberal party, who at this time received the name of "Liberal Unionists," because they pledged themselves to do all in their power to maintain the union between Great Britain and Ireland.

Gladstone's first Home Rule Bill was unsuccessful; but he was convinced of the justice of his cause, and when he was an old man of eighty-two, and Premier for the fourth time, he brought in another Bill, which proposed to give Irish members seats at Westminster as well as at Dublin, and which passed the Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords.

After that time there was a period during which efforts were made to bring Ireland into line with England in matters of local government and to help the Irish farmers in many ways. But many of the Irish still wished for more complete control of their own affairs, and another Home Rule Bill was introduced in 1912. North-eastern Ireland did not wish to be separated, and a body of Ulster Volunteers was raised to resist any attempts at disunion. There were serious threats of civil war, but this was averted by a greater catastrophe, namely, the outbreak of the Great War of 1914–18. The Home Rule Bill was passed in 1914, but it was arranged that a new Irish Parliament should not be set up until the European war was ended, and that Ulster should be excluded from its operations.

There was now a strong body in Ireland which demanded complete separation and the establishment of a republic, and there was a serious outbreak in April 1916. When the Great War was ended the agitation went on, and there was civil war in Ireland until in 1922 the greater part of the country became the Irish Free State with a constitution somewhat similar to the colonial Dominions, while Ulster formed a separate province with a Parliament of its own.

It was at the end of the Great War that Parliamentary

votes were given to a large number of women. The agitation for women's suffrage had been going on for about a century and a quarter, but it became very intense just before the Great War of 1914–18 broke out, when the "militant" suffragists tried every means to gain public attention, sometimes even resorting to such methods as the burning of houses and destruction of property. As soon as the Great War began the militants concluded a peace and took up war work with a will, and it was the splendid conduct of women workers during the long and bitter struggle which finally won public sympathy for their cause.

KING EDWARD VII.
(*After a photo by Lafayette, Dublin.*)

EXERCISE XIX

1. What do you understand by the term "Home Rule"? Does it apply only to Ireland?
2. Find out exactly under what Council you are living—Urban District Council, Town Council, City Council, or whatever it may be.
3. Ask your father to let you study a demand note for local rates, and inquire into the meaning of each item.
4. Write a note on (1) Free Trade, (2) Preference, (3) Protection, (4) Tariff Reform.
5. Why did it take so long for women to get the vote?
6. Name two prominent Prime Ministers in the latter part of Queen Victoria's reign.
7. Who is the present Prime Minister?
8. Name as many members of the Cabinet as you can.

CHAPTER XX—THE GREAT WAR OF 1914-18

THE war which began in 1914 was the outcome of several causes. After 1870 Germany had prospered greatly, and had quickly become one of the leading Powers. So well had she done that she wished to do much better, and especially to extend her commerce in all parts of the world. She was therefore anxious to set up oversea colonies in order to obtain the raw materials so necessary for modern life—oils, minerals, cotton, rubber, and other natural products. She found it hard to gain a colonial footing, and this made her impatient and inclined to be quarrelsome and suspicious.

France and Britain were friendly, and there was a definite alliance between Russia and France. Germany, therefore, felt that she was surrounded by a circle of rivals, who were combined to check that development which she was sure she deserved. Matters were in such a state that only an excuse was needed for beginning the armed conflict which many thinkers had predicted long before 1914.

On June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the heir to the Austrian throne, was murdered along with his wife in the Bosnian town of Serajevo. Austria believed, or pretended to believe, that the assassination had been connived at by Serbia, whose efforts at unifying the Balkan peoples under her leadership had long been a cause of jealousy and distrust. Germany wished to see the power of the Balkan States diminished; for she desired to spread her influence in that direction, and with the help of Turkey advance towards the Persian Gulf with designs of some kind upon our power in India. With Germany's approval, therefore, Austria sent an ultimatum to Serbia, demanding conditions which were too humiliating for an independent state to accept. Serbia refused some of these conditions and Austria declared war.

Quickly the whole of Europe was dragged into the quarrel. Russia mobilized on her southern frontiers in support of Serbia. Germany demanded demobilization, and promptly declared war on Russia. But she knew that some time must elapse before Russia would be ready for fighting, and she therefore decided to strike immediately at France, which, as

FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.
(Photo by C. Pietzner.)

Russia's ally, was now in a state of war with herself. Her plan was to march through Belgium, in spite of the fact that in 1839 the Powers of Europe, including Prussia, had agreed to regard that ancient "cockpit of Europe" as neutral ground. Britain was one of the signatories to this treaty, and its infringement brought her into the war against Germany.

Her ministers had striven first to keep the peace, then to limit the area of the war, and finally to stand aside. But the violation of Belgium was the real cause of her declaration of war upon Germany on August 4, 1914. At the same time it must be remembered that though she had no formal alliance with France she could not, even in her own interests, allow her nearest neighbour to be crushed and the balance of power in Europe to be upset. Further, Germany had become a dangerous rival, and was hoping that the coming conflict would break up that seemingly loose confederation known as the British Empire.

But the approach of danger quickly rallied the free nations of that Empire to the help of the mother country. Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand prepared to send troops, and the Crown Colonies to contribute supplies of various kinds. The native rulers of India placed their resources at the command of the King-Emperor. Britain needed all the military assistance that she could obtain, for her regular army was small, and she had a force of only 100,000 men ready to be sent across the Channel to the help of France. But she set to work to create a new army under Lord Kitchener, who had been appointed Secretary for War.

Her real strength was in her mighty Navy, which was ready for action as soon as war broke out. Behind that lay her wealth and her capacity for manufacturing the munitions of war, as well as the indomitable spirit of her people. All her strength was to be needed, for Germany was well prepared on the military side and had a navy which was by no means negligible.

The great struggle which was destined to last for four years has been justly called a World War. In the beginning Germany had Austria as her ally. Within three months she was joined by Turkey, and not long afterwards by Bulgaria. The Allies at the start were France, Britain, Russia, Belgium, Serbia, and Japan, while in May 1915 Italy joined them, and Rumania in August 1916. Before the end Portugal and Greece also took their side, and the United States joined in April 1917, after the revolution in Russia which lost that country to the Allies. The main battles, however, were fought on the war-worn Continent of Europe, and the main fighters were the

European *nations*, for before the end the manhood of each Great Power was completely enrolled in the fighting. In this way the Great War differed from the Napoleonic wars, during which civil life went on in the belligerent countries without a great deal of interruption.

BOOKS TO READ.—*Why Britain went to War*, by Sir Edward Parrott; *The First Year of the Great War*, by R. Wilson; *Nicky Nan, Reservist*, by Sir A. T. Quiller Couch ("Q."). The first chapter of *Days to Remember*, by John Buchan and Henry Newbolt. The facts relating to the outbreak of the war are detailed in the British Official Paper entitled *Great Britain and the European Crisis*, especially pages 78–79.

EXERCISE XX

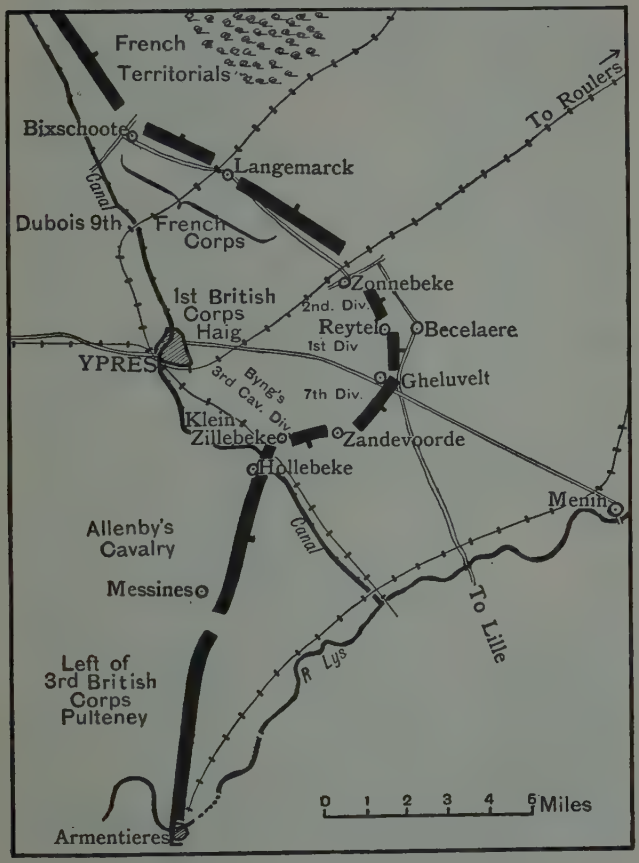
1. In what way, or ways, can a modern nation justify entry into a war?
2. What is meant by "humane methods of warfare"?
3. Consider the declaration of the German Chancellor about the march through Belgium: "We are now in a state of necessity, and necessity knows no law. We were compelled to override the just protest of the Luxembourg and Belgian Governments. The wrong—I speak openly—that we are committing we will endeavour to make good as soon as our military goal is reached. Anybody who is threatened, as we are threatened, can have but the one thought—how he is to hack his way through."
4. The Chancellor also called the Belgian treaty a "mere scrap of paper." What would be the consequence of the adoption of this attitude towards treaties by all contracting parties?
5. What is your comment on the following remark of the German Kaiser when Britain entered the war: "The British change the whole situation. An obstinate nation! They will keep up the war. It cannot end soon."
6. How far did the Great War differ from the Napoleonic wars in extent and general character?
7. What is meant by saying that "public opinion was behind the British declaration of war on Germany"?
8. Why could Germany not build up a colonial empire like our own?

CHAPTER XXI—THE WESTERN FRONT

GERMANY'S first intention was to strike a blow at Paris, and with this in view she marched through Belgium. Her armies were opposed by the forces of General Joffre, commanding the French, and the British Expeditionary Force under Sir John French. The Germans came on in such overwhelming strength that the Allies were forced to fall back towards Paris, losing heavily as they retreated but fighting gamely all the way. The record of the British retreat from Mons is one of the finest stories in the history of her regular army. Reinforcements were rushed up to the Allied fighting line, and on 4th September Joffre halted the retreat.

Then came the wonderful First Battle of the Marne, which saved Paris and defeated the whole German plan of campaign. The Germans were advancing triumphantly in spite of the stout and prolonged French resistance, when on the 9th the advance halted and ebbed, thrown back by a spirited attack of the Sixth Army under Maunoury. Sir John French and Franchet d'Esperey had pierced the enemy front, forcing Bülow to retreat and Kluck to follow him. This retirement of the German right caused the retreat of all the German armies, and they fell back to a line along the Aisne, through Champagne, and down the east bank of the Meuse, a line which they held for about four years ; for the war on the Western Front was now to be on the whole one of entrenchment instead of sweeping movement, a test of endurance rather than military skill.

Germany's next great object was to break through the left of the Allied front and to seize the Channel ports, so as to threaten the British lines of communication. In this effort the city of Ypres became the storm-centre, for the British army lay east of this place, and the Germans knew that it was comparatively small. The First Battle of Ypres began on the 21st October, a desperate struggle on the part of the British against almost overwhelming odds. They were forced back and back until suddenly, as at the Marne, the enemy halted, for a dangerous gap had been filled in the British line by a battalion of the 2nd Worcesters, brought up by a subordinate officer named Fitz-Clarence from a division other than his own.



THE CRITICAL DAY IN THE FIRST BATTLE OF YPRES.

They dug themselves in, broke the German advance, opened a heavy flank fire, and brought it to a standstill. For four years thereafter the Ypres Salient was to be a cockpit of war, but up

to the last hour of the campaign no German entered the shattered city except as a prisoner.

In April 1915 the Germans again began the bombardment of Ypres, using, for the first time, great shells filled with poison gas. The result of this deadly attack was a five-mile breach in the Allied line. The situation was desperate for a time, but was saved by the gallantry of the Canadians, who held out against overwhelming odds till reinforcements came up and even then had the vitality to make a counter-attack. This Second Battle of Ypres lasted far on into May, and ended in another failure on the part of the enemy to force a way into the ruined little city.

The Battle of Loos, which began on September 25, 1915, was gloriously lost by the Allies. It was part of their first combined offensive, and it saw the first appearance in a great fight of the New Army raised in response to Lord Kitchener's appeal. The battle failed to break the German front, but shook it to its foundations, and the attack of the Scottish 15th Division against the village of Loos was one of the most gallant efforts of the war. They were ordered to take Loos and the height beyond it known as Hill 70. A wild rush carried the Highlanders through the enemy's front line singing and cheering. Another effort carried the second line, and soon the kilted soldiers were rushing through the streets of Loos. On they went until they reached the summit of the hill, where they were far in advance of their own line, with no supports on south or north. They were forced to defend the hill in their turn, and very few of them ever saw their comrades again —"a magnificent but barren feat of courage."

The Battle of the Somme was the first great British attack to be made with ample supplies of guns and shells, and was continued for several months during the year 1916; the third stage, which won many miles of the German second position, beginning on 14th July. In this battle the South African Brigade entered for the first time into the battle line on the Western Front and won great renown at Delville Wood, which was the most awkward place on the battle front. It was necessary to dislodge the Germans from this wood, and the South Africans were ordered to occupy it, and in a few hours they won almost the whole area. Then began the more diffi-

FIELD-MARSHAL SIR DOUGLAS HAIG.
(Earl Haig of Bemersyde.)

cult task of holding it against the German counter-attacks, which began late in the afternoon and continued during the following night. The fighting continued during the next few days, the South Africans struggling against desperate odds and repelling attack after attack with great gallantry. For six days and five nights the South African Brigade held this most difficult post on the British front, and when they marched out had lost more than three-fourths of their number.

The Third Battle of Ypres, of the summer of 1917, was in many ways one of the sternest fights in the records of the British Army. It was not a defence but an attack, part of the concerted effort to clear the Belgian coast of the enemy and turn the German right flank in the West. But it was begun too late in the year, and the British were opposed by an enemy strongly reinforced, owing to the Revolution in Russia, which had lost that country to the Allies and enabled the Germans to send many troops to the West which had been employed in the East. The attack began on 31st July and was at first successful, but the weather broke and further advance in the heavy clay soil was impossible. A fortnight later the attack was renewed and the British were checked; but in September, when the rains had ceased, a third attempt was made, and everywhere succeeded against almost inconceivable difficulties. In the last stages of the great battle the rains fell heavily once more, but the British pressed on and carried the whole main ridge of West Flanders. With this high ground in their hands the Ypres Salient would be no longer dominated by the guns of the enemy. But the main object of the battle had not been achieved.

On October 20, 1917, it had been decided to make a surprise attack upon Cambrai, about eight miles as the crow flies from the British front, and to prepare the way for the infantry, not by means of heavy artillery but by the use of Tanks, which the Allies had first used during the Battle of the Somme. The advance of the Tanks was begun on the evening of 19th November, and at dawn the next morning a tremendous fire at short range crashed from the British line. The Germans, taken completely by surprise, fell back, and the famous Hindenburg Line of trenches was pierced. Once more the initial success was not followed up. The Tanks did their part splendidly, but before the fighting died down we had lost much of

the ground we had gained. So the desperate tussle went on, swinging now to this side, now to that.

During the spring of 1918 the Germans concentrated all their strength on the West in an endeavour to break the Allied front and separate the British from the French before the soldiers of the United States could arrive. The attempt was almost successful, and there was a time when, during the German move towards Amiens, the Channel ports were seriously in danger, and Sir Douglas Haig published a little later an appeal to the British army to stand "with their backs to the wall," and to "fight on to the end." The German advance began on Thursday, 21st March, and by 6th April the enemy was brought to a standstill before Amiens. He therefore chose a new battle-ground on both sides of the river Lys, and made a new attack on 9th April. A gap was made in the Allied line, and the situation became critical in the extreme. But the enemy's strength was waning, and his new reinforcements had not the power of the older and seasoned battalions which had been sacrificed in the last desperate rush. The 5th May marked the close of the Battle of the Lys, and the push for the possession of the Channel ports was spent.

The Second Battle of the Marne, in July 1918, was the beginning of Germany's defeat. Marshal Foch had been appointed commander-in-chief or generalissimo of all the Allies; and for the first time he now had the advantage of numbers. But he waited until the enemy had struck again, so as to catch him on the rebound. By thinning out the line near Amiens he enticed the Germans south of the Marne. Then he delivered his counter-stroke, employing a great fleet of French light Tanks, followed up by French and American infantry, and brought the last German offensive to a close. The next step was to keep the enemy constantly on the move with a series of attacks on various fronts. By the end of September he had crumpled up the German front, driven the enemy back to the old Hindenburg Line, and prepared for the final battle, which lasted from 27th September to the first week in October. It was on the 8th of that month that Haig pierced the Hindenburg zone, and the German retreat began. The Armistice was signed a month later.

Books to Read.—Parts I. and II. of *Days to Remember*, by John Buchan and Henry Newbolt; *The First Hundred Thousand*, by Ian Hay; *Kitchener Chaps*, by A. Neil Lyons; *Sergeant Michael Cassidy, R.E.*, by "Sapper."

MARSHAL FOCH.

EXERCISE XXI

1. Make a list of the chief events of the Western Front, with dates.
2. Which names stand out most prominently in this story ?

[*N.B.*—Only a few have been mentioned to impress the fact that the contest was not a general's so much as a soldier's war.]

3. Who made the following appeal, and on what occasion :—
   " There is no other course open to us than to fight it out. Every position must be held to the last man ; there must be no retirement. With our backs to the wall, and believing in the justice of our cause, each one of us must fight on to the end."
4. Locate the following :—
   " The orders of the 15th were to take Loos and the height beyond, known as Hill 70, which looked down upon the northern suburb of Lens. Saturday the 25th was a drizzling morning, with low clouds and a light wind from the south-west. The attack of the division was made by the 44th Brigade on the right and the 46th on the left, with the 45th Brigade in reserve. At ten minutes to six gas was discharged from our front, but the breeze caused it to eddy back from the hollow round Loos and trouble the left brigade. Then Piper Laidlaw, of the King's Own Scottish Borderers, mounted the parapet and piped his men forward to the tune of ' Blue Bonnets over the Border.' "—JOHN BUCHAN.
5. Can you " cap " this story with another one drawn from the history of the war ?

BRITISH WARSHIPS AT GIBRALTAR.

(*From the painting by Chas. Dixon, R.I.*)

CHAPTER XXII—THE WORK OF THE NAVY

During the Great War it was the work of the British Navy (1) to blockade the enemy and drive his commerce from the seas; (2) to protect British commerce throughout the world; (3) to put the enemy's main naval force out of action; (4) to render impossible the transfer of enemy troops across the seas—that is, to prevent invasion of our shores; (5) to cover the transport of our troops and those of our Allies; (6) to cover the transport of supplies; and (7) to co-operate when possible with the military operations, as was done in Gallipoli and on the Belgian coast. As the war went on it was also found necessary to cope with an unrestricted submarine campaign on the part of the enemy. It will thus be seen that a record of the naval actions of the war would give only a very fragmentary idea of the work of what some one fittingly called "the Silent Service."

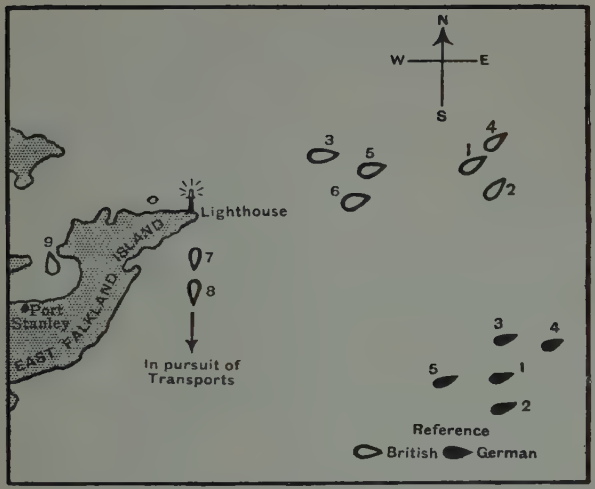
The Navy was fortunately mobilized and ready for service as soon as the war began, and at once took up its heavy and multifarious task. In a very short time German commerce was almost completely swept from the seas and a blockade of the enemy's coasts begun. The German main fleet remained at Kiel, closely watched by the British North Sea Squadron. The first naval action of note was the Battle of Coronel (November 1, 1914), in which Admiral Cradock, who had charge of an important area off the coast of South America, attacked a superior German force under Admiral von Spee off the coast of Chile, and went down in the action with two of his ships.

The news of this disaster was not officially given to the public until 17th November, and by that time the counter-stroke had been launched. Admiral Sturdee had been appointed Commander-in-chief in the South Atlantic and Pacific, and on the 26th was near Rio, where he came up with a British squadron of five ships. Meanwhile von Spee was moving south for an attack upon the Falklands Islands, a valuable coaling station with a wireless installation and a fine double harbour. But Sturdee was there before him by some eighteen hours, and his battle-cruisers had coaled and were out of harbour when the German ships came up. Sturdee made the signal for

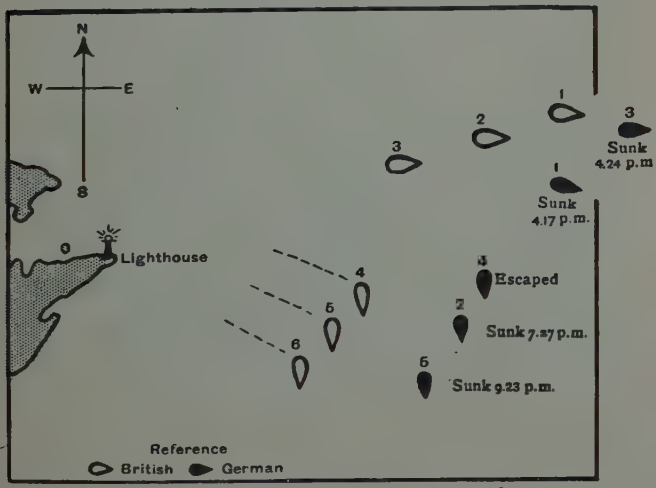
BATTLE OF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS—DECEMBER 8.
(First Phase—8 a.m.)

"General Chase." The fight that followed was at long range, and the British victory was due mainly to superb marksmanship. Of the five German vessels four were sunk, including the flagship in which von Spee went down, his flag flying to the last.

It was early in the war that the Germans conceived the idea of blockading the British Isles by means of a submarine fleet. Merchant ships were to be sunk without challenge and without warning. If crews, passengers, or even neutrals perished, "the blame," said the Germans, "would attach to those who despised our warnings." This new campaign was a serious matter for the British Navy, but it rose splendidly to the occasion. The submarines were hunted by other submarines, by destroyers, by trawlers, by airships, and seaplanes; they were destroyed by gunfire, by mines, by nets, by torpedoes, and by "depth charges." But of all the methods employed the most interesting was that of the Mystery Ships or Q-boats. These were tramp steamers or colliers with a concealed arma-



BATTLE OF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS—DECEMBER 8.
Second Phase—11 a.m.



BATTLE OF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS—DECEMBER 8.
(Last Phase.)

ment for the decoying and destruction of submarines. They were successful beyond expectation, and the Germans actually complained of the unscrupulousness of an enemy who used disguised ships and took their submarines by surprise! The record of the Q-boats is full of adventure and excitement.

On May 30, 1916, the British Grand Fleet put out for one of its periodical sweeps in the North Sea, Admiral Jellicoe having information which gave him hope that the enemy's main fleet might at last come out beyond its protecting mines. The German admiral, von Scheer, did indeed venture out in force, but did not expect to meet any but "separate enemy divisions." He had under him fifteen dreadnoughts and six older ships, with numerous cruisers, torpedo flotilla, and ten zeppelins, as well as an advance squadron of five battle-cruisers. The British force was preceded by Admiral Beatty's battle-cruiser fleet with the Fifth British Squadron, while Jellicoe had under his command twenty-four dreadnoughts, with cruisers and destroyers.

The Germans were sighted at 2.20 p.m., and at 3.48 the fight between the advance cruisers began at a range of about three miles, the Germans racing back to their main fleet with Beatty in hot pursuit, but not without inflicting considerable damage on their pursuers, the *Indefatigable* being destroyed by a German salvo which reached her magazine.

Before long the Germans turned to attack, and Beatty learnt to his delight that the main German fleet was actually in the open. His business was now to draw them on towards the Grand Fleet, which manœuvred to cut off the enemy from his base. This movement was successfully carried out, and the battle went on, both sides suffering severely, until the light failed and the two fleets lost touch.

The German admiral wisely resolved on a rush for home, and fighting continued throughout the night with heavy losses on both sides. When morning broke Jellicoe collected his forces and searched for the German main fleet until noon. But von Scheer did not intend to fight any more. His losses as well as ours had been heavy, and many of his remaining ships were outclassed, while the injury to the moral stamina of his men was more serious than any material losses. The German High Sea Fleet had failed to challenge the control of

ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY.
(Earl Beatty of the North Sea.)

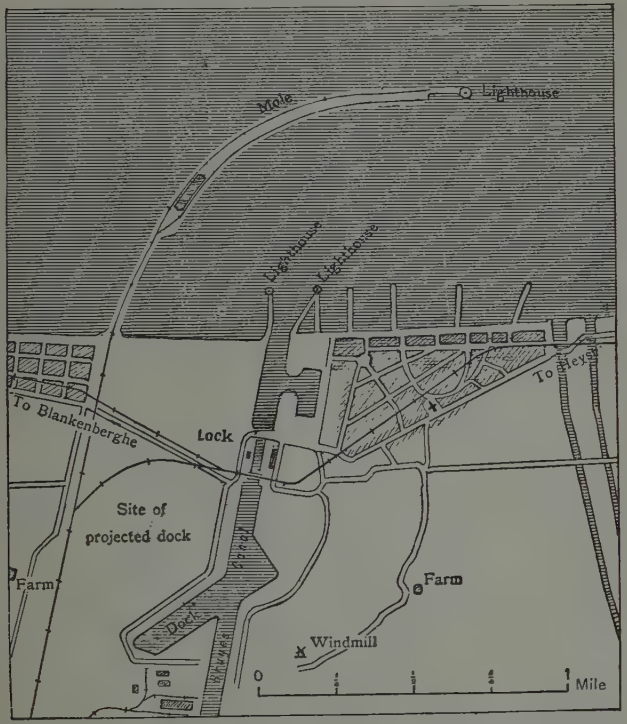
the sea, and after Jutland was locked up until it came out to surrender to Admiral Beatty at the end of the war.

In reviewing the work done at sea we must not forget to recognize the valuable services of the British mercantile marine and fishing fleets. The merchant sailors carried on their work regardless of danger from gunfire or torpedo, and "skippers, engineers, and deck-hands, who had had three, four, or five ships sunk under them, were constantly asking to be employed again before their clothes were dry." The merchant sailors and fishermen also took their full share in coast defence and in hunting down submarines.

The chief German submarine bases were at Zeebrugge and Ostend on the Belgian coast, and on April 23, 1918, a British naval attack was made on the former port. The place was defended by batteries, one of which was emplaced on a solid stone curving breakwater more than a mile long, and destroyers also lay in the harbour. While the fighting was going on and the enemy's attention fully engaged, blockships were to arrive and be sunk in such a position at the mouth of the harbour as to impede or prevent the passage of German submarines, known generally as U-boats.

The British ships approached the Mole at night under cover of an artificial fog or smoke-screen which blinded the enemy's searchlights. Exactly at midnight the *Vindictive*, with two other vessels, emerged from this fog into the full glare of the searchlights and ran alongside the Mole. High gangways were at once run out on the *Vindictive*, and the storming-parties, fully equipped, leapt down upon the breakwater, and captured the batteries in about a quarter of an hour. Meanwhile submarine C3 had made for the shore end of the Mole, and after her crew had left her she was exploded, with the result that the Mole was cut off from all communication with the shore. Then the three blockships made for the head of the canal under a heavy fire. One was sunk partially across the channel, and the other two near its mouth, the crews taking to their boats to be picked up later by British destroyers. The U-boat harbour had been rendered practically useless, and the *Vindictive* with her two attendants made off at full speed.

Books to Read.—Part IV. of *Days to Remember*, by John Buchan and Henry Newbolt; *A Short History of the Great War*, by A. F. Pollard.



ZEEBRUGGE.

EXERCISE XXII

1. Make a list of the chief naval events, with dates.
2. Compare the Battle of Jutland with the Battle of Trafalgar.
3. Compare the Zeebrugge incident with Drake's exploit, which was described as "singeing the King of Spain's beard."
4. Write a short paragraph on Germany's submarine campaign.
5. Why did not the German fleet come out more often from Kiel ?
6. Give a general account of the work of the Navy, and show that battles are not the only, or even the chief, things required of a modern naval force.

CHAPTER XXIII—"OUR FAR-FLUNG BATTLE LINE"

"We are fighting," said a British statesman in July 1918, "seven distinct campaigns ourselves—in France, Italy, Salonika, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Persia, and Egypt—and we have raised 7,000,000 men. We have been the feeder, clothier, baker, armourer, and universal provider of the Allies." The speaker omitted the work of the Navy, which we have just considered in broad outline, but he drew attention to the fact that the contest was not merely a European but a World War. He did not mention Gallipoli, for that desperate adventure was over when he spoke the above words.

Early in 1915, when the struggle on the Western Front had settled down to trench warfare, it was resolved to make an attempt to capture the narrow and well-defended straits known as the Dardanelles, with a view to seizing Constantinople, and so driving Turkey out of the war, as well as opening a road for Russia to import munitions of war by way of the Black Sea. The first effort on the part of the Navy to capture the Dardanelles proved that nothing could be done until the Gallipoli Peninsula on the north side was occupied. Landing-places were therefore selected, and the attempt was made at five points on Sunday, 25th April, men from Australia and New Zealand (known as Anzacs from the initials of their military designation) leading the way, and the landings being made under cover of naval fire. No words can ever convey any adequate idea of the difficulties to be overcome by the landing-parties or the gallantry displayed by the men. "Sixty thousand men, backed by the most powerful navy in the world, attacked a shore which Nature seemed to have made impregnable, and which was held by not inferior numbers of the enemy, in positions prepared for months, and supported by the latest modern artillery. Every rule of war was set at nought. On paper, the thing was impossible, as the Turkish army orders announced. According to the text-books no man should have left the beaches alive."

Yet of the five beaches four were occupied by the morning of the 27th. Then the advance began, and by the evening of the 28th the south-western extremity of the peninsula had

THE LANDING BEACHES AT GALLIPOLI.

been occupied. During the following summer a desperate and continuous struggle went on for the heights of the peninsula, but by September it was clear that the Turko-German defenders, in league with Nature, were too strong. After much discussion it was decided to retire from two of the three occupied positions. The departure was almost as difficult as the landings, and was

carried out during ten successive nights. In December the last position was also evacuated, and this feat was performed with the loss of only one man. So ended the expedition at Gallipoli.

From the beginning of the war the Turks and Germans strove to conquer Egypt. Early in 1915 the Turks were repelled by the British on the banks of the Suez Canal, but the defence of Egypt, the "key of Britain's Eastern possessions," still remained an anxious problem, and it was recognized that the country could be best protected on the frontier of Palestine. British forces were therefore marched into the Holy Land, but were twice checked at Gaza. But in November Sir Edmund Allenby took this town and then advanced upon Jerusalem from the coast town of Jaffa, and on 9th December the enemy sent out the white flag of surrender. Two days later the British entered the Holy City.

Having strengthened his bases at Jaffa and Jerusalem, Allenby set to work to cut off the Turkish forces in Arabia by crossing to the east of the Jordan and cutting the Hedjaz railway. But first he had to defeat the enemy west of the Jordan. On the 19th September he won a victory on the Plain of Sharon, then pushed on to Nazareth, and all but captured the German commander-in-chief. The army to the east of the Jordan was now in full flight, and the British moved on Damascus to intercept it. They entered that ancient city on 1st October, and the enemy resistance was over.

Allenby next advanced on Beirut and Baalbek, and from thence to Aleppo. Then the Bagdad railway was cut—the line which was to link Berlin with the Persian Gulf and threaten our Indian Empire. Four days later Turkey signed the armistice and was out of the war, and by this time Bulgaria had also laid down her arms. Austria was on the eve of collapse, and Germany was left without allies and with her front line crumbling before Haig and Foch.

On Sunday the 10th November the Kaiser left the German headquarters at Spa, crossed the Dutch frontier, and sought refuge in a friend's house at Amerongen. The Crown Prince also found sanctuary in Holland. That night the new German republic accepted the Allies' terms, and at eleven o'clock on the eleventh day of the eleventh month of 1918 the Armistice was signed and fighting ceased.

" The minutes passed slowly along the Western Front. An occasional shell, an occasional burst of fire, told that peace was not yet, but there were long spells of quiet, save in the American area. Officers held their watches in their hands, and the troops waited with the same grave composure with which they had fought. Men were too weary for their imaginations to rise to the great moment, for it is not at the time of a crisis but long afterwards that the human mind grasps the drama. Suddenly, as the watch hands touched eleven, there came a second of expectant silence, and then a curious rippling sound which observers, far behind the front, likened to the noise of a great wind. It was the sound of men cheering from the Vosges to the sea."

The horrors of the great struggle sickened the world of war, and one of the first articles of peace embodied in the Treaty of Versailles which formally ended the war brought into being a League of Nations pledged to find other means of settling international disputes than recourse to the " bloody arbitrement " of war. The Covenant of the League was embodied in each of the Peace Treaties, and bound the nations concerned not only to avoid war by every possible means, but especially to preserve rigid respect for the obligations of treaties, which were never again to be mere " scraps of paper." The League in its first Constitution contained representatives from fifty-two nations, and its headquarters were established at Geneva in Switzerland.

EXERCISE XXIII

1. Show that the contest of 1914–18 was actually a World War.
2. Why was Britain anxious to maintain her hold upon Egypt ?
3. Why was Germany's form of government changed from that of an empire to that of a republic in November 1918 ?
4. Compare the Great War with the long struggle with Napoleon which we studied in the first part of this book.
5. Find instances in this book of " history repeating itself," or disprove the truth of the saying.
6. The French Revolution produced " The Marseillaise " as a marching song. What air was used by the British Army in the Great War ?
7. What is the object of the League of Nations ?
8. At least £40,000,000,000 sterling was spent by the nations in the direct business of war. On what social objects might this money have been spent ?

APPENDIX

NOTES AND QUERIES FOR YOUNG CITIZENS

§ 1. GOVERNMENT

Government, like charity, begins at home. Who governs the home? Who makes its rules or laws? Name some of these laws, expressed or understood.

Government is continued in the playing field. Who governs the team? Who made the rules? What are the penalties for infringement? What is a secretary, treasurer, committee, in connection with a club?

Government is continued at school. Who governs the school? Name some of its rules or laws with their appropriate punishments. What are the school rewards?

Investigate the meaning of the word "anarchy," "despot," "tyranny," "freedom."

Why must we all submit to government?

Learn the following:—

> "I flatter myself that I love a manly moral regulated liberty . . . The effect of liberty to individuals is, that they may do what they please: we ought to see what it will please them to do, before we risk congratulations, which may be soon turned into complaints. Prudence would dictate this in the case of separate, insulated, private men; but liberty, when men act in bodies, is *power*. Considerate people, before they declare themselves, will observe the use which is made of *power;* and particularly of so trying a thing as *new* power in *new* persons, of whose principles, tempers, and dispositions they have little or no experience, and in situations, where those who appear the most stirring in the scene may possibly not be the real movers."
>
> EDMUND BURKE: *Reflections on the French Revolution.*

§ 2. THE DEMAND FOR RATES

Here is a copy of a demand for rates left at the house of a ratepayer in an outlying suburb of London which was "governed" locally by an Urban District Council.

POOR RATE

Estimated Charges

	d.	Amount in the £
Relief of the Poor and other expenses of the Guardians	2.10	
County Contributions, including Higher Education	5.00	
Metropolitan Police Rate	3.75	
Education expenses of the Urban District Council	5.15	
Total	16.00	1*s.* 4*d.*

Names of Overseers of the Parish:

General District Rate	*d.*	Amount in the £
Sewage Disposal and Sewerage	1.08	
Highways, Maintenance and Repairs	2.57	
Dust Removal, etc.	1.69	
Public Lighting	1.28	
Hospital, and Notification of Infectious Diseases	.50	
Fire Brigade	.46	
Public Offices	.23	
Salaries	1.16	
Establishment Charges	.38	
Recreation Grounds	.10	
Loan Repayments and Interest	4.50	
Depot, Mortuary, Stables, and Miscellaneous	.05	
Total	14.00	1*s.* 2*d.*

Study the above very carefully so as to find out how the money which this ratepayer had to pay was spent. His rent was £60, but he was "rated upon" £45, so that he had to pay 45 times 2s. 6d. (1s. 4d. + 1s. 2d.). How much was that?

Is your father a ratepayer? If so, examine his demand note for rates when it comes in. (Perhaps he has one now.) Look into all the details, and find out by polite questions what each item means.

What is the heading to your father's demand note?

Do you find anything in the above statement about Army, Navy, or Air Force? Anything about Government departments in London?

Do you know a member of an Urban District Council, or Parish Council, or a Borough Council, or City Council, or County Council?

§ 3. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Investigate, in a dictionary, the meaning of the word "local" as applied to government; also the meanings of "rural," "urban," and "parish." Find out what assembly or council manages the local affairs of your own village, rural or urban district, borough (town), or city.

If you live in a parish of less than 300 people you are governed locally by the *Parish Meeting*, which all the grown-up people of your parish have the right to attend, and which is the "council" for the parish. In a larger parish a Parish Council is elected by the Parish Meeting, but the latter—that is, the whole grown-up population—keeps control over the councillors, so that "the governed may govern themselves."

The *Parish Council* (1) has the care of Parish property, like a hall or school building; (2) looks after drains and water supply as well as allotments, and sometimes its own poor; (3) controls vagrants passing through the parish. Sometimes it has made a "union" with

other parishes to look after the very poor; hence the name of a "Union" workhouse, which is under the care of a Board of Guardians.*

The *Rural District Council* manages several parishes lying together. It looks after sanitary affairs, water supply, drainage, and the byways, leaving the highways to the County Council (see below) but helping to pay for them.

Do you live in town? If so, find out whether it ranks as a *county borough*, or a *municipal borough*, or an *urban district*.

The county boroughs are the largest towns of all,† and are independent of the county or shire in which they are situated geographically. They are very dignified indeed. Some county boroughs which have cathedrals are also known as *cities*, and the king may give this title to a large modern town which has not a bishop's "seat."

Investigate the meaning of "municipal."

The municipal borough is, as a rule, not so large as a county borough, but each has a "corporation," consisting of councillors and aldermen, and presided over by a *mayor* in England or a provost in Scotland. London, Dublin, York, and some other important cities and boroughs, have each a *Lord Mayor*, while Glasgow, Edinburgh, Perth, Aberdeen, and Dundee have each a *Lord Provost*.

The mayor presides as chief magistrate at the borough police court, and can deal outright with "small offenders," but must send those who are charged with serious offences to the Assizes held in the county town (see below).

The *Borough Council* provides for keeping the peace, education (including public libraries), and sanitation. Some borough councils supply gas, water, and electricity. (See if this is the case in your own home district. Examine gas, water, and electricity bills sent in to your home.)

Each person who has the right of voting at elections for borough councillors is called a *burgess*, who is also a ratepayer.

What should a ratepayer do when he thinks that things are going wrong in his own borough?

The *Urban District Council* manages a district usually on the edge of some great town. It has no mayor or aldermen, but is presided over by a chairman.

* In Scotland the Parish Council does this work, and there is a Boarding-out system for orphan children, the object of which is to bring them up respectably in real homes (not workhouses), and usually along with other children. The children are expected to be useful in the home, as other members of the family would, but this is not allowed to interfere with school attendance or lessons. When schooldays are over the Parish Council are careful to see that the children are not employed in blind-alley occupations, but in situations preferably in the district where they are boarded, where they can become useful citizens, and until they are self-supporting the Council continues to keep in touch with them. The Boarding-out and Cottage Home systems are also in use in England, and workhouses are no longer built.

† A few county boroughs are not very large, but are historically important, such as York, Canterbury, Bristol, Norwich, and Exeter.

§ 4. COUNTY GOVERNMENT

English *County Councils* were set up in 1888 to take over some of the duties previously performed by Parliament. They were not allowed to make laws for the whole country, but only *by-laws* for their own area.

How do you account for the fact that there are more county councils than there are geographical counties ?

Your geography book will probably give you the name of each *county town*, the centre of county government. Is it always the largest town ?

Do you know any particular county town very well ? If so, could you find the County Hall or Shire Hall, or County Council Offices ?

The County Council is composed of elected councillors, aldermen chosen by the councillors, and a chairman. It controls, as a rule—

(1) Main or arterial roads and bridges within its own area.
(2) Some reformatories, industrial schools, and lunatic asylums.
(3) Sanitary matters, laws relating to contagious diseases in animals, and protection of fish and wild birds.
(4) Education of villages and smaller towns.
(5) Weights and measures.

The *County Court* tries cases which do not affect personal safety—for example, disputes about property, recovery of debt, etc.

§ 5. THE KING'S TAXES

People whose incomes are above a certain amount pay *Income Tax*. Perhaps some one will allow you to inspect a demand note, on the back of which you will find a table like the following, which will give you some idea how the money collected is to be spent.

ESTIMATED NATIONAL EXPENDITURE IN 1923–24

I. Consolidated Fund Services

National Debt Services and Interest	£310,000,000
Sinking Funds	40,000,000
Payments for Northern Ireland, Residuary Share	3,000,000
Road Fund	12,650,000
Payments to Local Taxation Accounts, etc.	10,348,000
Land Settlement	1,500,000
Other Consolidated Fund Services	2,972,000
Total	£380,470,000

II. Supply Services

Army (including Ordnance Factories)		£52,000,000
Navy		58,000,000
Air Force		12,011,000
Civil Services—		
Public Education	£47,857,000	
Old Age Pensions	23,200,000	
Ministry of Pensions	73,655,000	
Ministry of Health, etc.— Insurance, etc.	22,260,000	
Ministry of Labour, Civil— Demobilization and Resettlement, etc.	16,187,000	
Ministry of Munitions / Ministry of Shipping	3,300,000	
Coal Mines Deficiency	1,500,000	
Other Civil Services	61,623,000	
		251,670,000
Customs, Excise, and Inland Revenue Departments		11,591,000
Post Office Services		50,874,000
		£436,146,000
Grand Total	£816,616,000	

Study the above, noting (1) the effect of the War of 1914–18; (2) the largest items; (3) the cost of Education compared with that of Army, Navy, and Air Force together; (4) the charge for roads (see above under County Council, etc.); (5) the amount paid by the taxpayer towards industrial insurance; (6) the large item for expense of government (Civil Services) other than that mentioned above.

Who controls this expenditure?

How can a taxpayer take his share in the work of drawing up this bill and express his opinions upon it?

§ 6. CENTRAL OR NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

What is the great central or national law-making and governing body? Of what does Parliament consist? (Do not forget the King.)

Money is the concern of the House of Commons, members of which are elected by the taxpayers of the country.

Why are these members sometimes called *representatives?* Who are the members' *constituents?* What letters does a member of the House of Commons use after his name?

What is meant by a *political party?* What are the chief political parties of the present day? Name some of their leaders.

Who is your own member of Parliament? (You *may* have more than one.) To which political party does he (or she) belong?

[Note that this member now represents all the people in his (or her) constituency, not merely those who voted for him (or her).

THE THAMES AND THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

A Parliamentary Election

Lists of *voters* may be found on notice boards of churches and chapels. These are ratepayers who have occupied their houses for a certain time. Most lodgers are also entitled to vote, but their names do not appear in these lists. A large number of women have the Parliamentary vote.

Investigate the meaning of "franchise" and "disfranchised."

In a borough the mayor receives a *writ* from London directing him to preside over the business of electing members to Parliament; he thus becomes *returning officer* for the forthcoming election. A day is fixed for *nomination*—that is, naming of the candidates—and the returning officer satisfies himself that the men or women named are fit and proper persons to become Members of Parliament. He then fixes the date of *election day* or *polling day*.

Meanwhile candidates have been holding meetings and trying to persuade electors to vote for them. They must not (1) offer bribes of any kind or (2) threaten electors. *Canvassers* go round to explain the views of their candidates, but have no right to ask any one for whom he or she is going to vote.

On polling day voters can give their votes at any time between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. (sometimes 9 p.m.). They must visit the *polling booth* or voting place, in a school or some public building, where is found (1) a policeman; (2) an official who satisfies himself that the voter is "on the register" or list already referred to; (3) a black ballot box with a small slit in the top. The *voting paper* may look like that on page 44 of this book. Only a cross (or crosses) must be marked upon it by the voter to show for whom * he votes, and he is allowed to do this in secret, no one overlooking him. He folds the paper once and himself drops it into the box. This is *voting by ballot*.

[*N.B.*—An enthusiastic and somewhat spiteful voter scored out the name of the person for whom he was not voting. His vote was *disqualified* because he had made a *spoilt paper*.]

Ballot boxes are collected at the end of the day, and the votes are counted under the eye of the returning officer. The candidate who obtains a *majority* of votes is said to be elected. The result is announced by the returning officer.

Proportional Representation.—Many people have objected to this method of selecting Members of Parliament, saying that it results in one party only being really represented in the House of Commons. It has been suggested that Proportional Representation should be adopted. Under this plan each elector has one vote, even if his constituency returns two or more members, but he is allowed to show to whom this vote should be given if his first choice should prove to have more votes than a certain number agreed upon as necessary for election. Suppose that a certain county borough is entitled to send four members to Parliament, and that there are six candidates whose names might appear on the voting paper thus:

* If his constituency returns two or more members he has two or more votes.

DAVIS, CHARLES . .	
GOOGE, JAMES B. . .	
PETERS, WILLIAM . .	
SAUNDERS, JOHN . .	
TAIT, MORTIMER . .	
WILSON, STEWART . .	

A certain voter places the figure 1 against the name of Peters whom he prefers before all the others, and who is therefore known as his "first preference." If he chooses he may hand in his voting paper without making any further mark upon it; but he may if he will place the numbers 2, 3, and 4 opposite the names of three other candidates who come next in his regard and in this order.

The first counting takes place, the counters looking only for the figure 1 on each paper, and arranging the result as at an election on the old "majority plan." Perhaps the result is—

DAVIS, CHARLES	3,400
GOOGE, JAMES B.	2,561
PETERS, WILLIAM	10,300
SAUNDERS, JOHN	5,163
TAIT, MORTIMER	4,591
WILSON, STEWART . . .	625
Total Votes . . .	27,240

The total number of votes is divided by 5 (one more than the number of seats), which gives 5,448, and to this 1 is added, making 5,449. This is the number which must be polled for election, and Peters is therefore considered to be elected. His papers are now taken, and the other votes marked by the numbers 2, 3, and 4 are transferred to the papers of the candidates to whom they were given. On the second counting Saunders shows 6,100 votes, and is also declared to be elected. His surplus votes are again transferred, and it may perhaps be found that Googe has more than the required number, while a further counting brings Wilson into the charmed circle.

Rather exhausting, you may say, but the advocates of the system claim that it is more likely to secure the return of men of all shades of opinion. They remind us that minorities are just as worthy of representation as majorities, sometimes even more worthy, and that under proportional representation this desirable object can be achieved.

§ 7. THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

Study the picture on page 122 of the interior of the House of Commons from a photograph taken some time ago, and showing at the far end the "Grille," behind which ladies formerly sat but which has now been removed.

Find (1) the Speaker's Chair; (2) the Table before it at which the be-wigged Clerks sit with their backs to the Speaker, while on the front of the Table rests the Mace, the symbol of the dignity and privileges of the House of Commons and Cromwell's "bauble." It rests on the Table while the Speaker occupies the Chair, but when he leaves his seat it is placed on supports beneath the front ledge of the Table by the *Serjeant-at-Arms.*

Find the *Treasury Bench*, the front seat on the right hand of the Speaker, covered with green leather, on which members of the Government sit. Their supporters sit behind them. The opponents of the Government sit to the left hand of the Speaker, their leaders occupying the front bench. They are known collectively as "His Majesty's Opposition" or "the Opposition," a term which explains itself.

The Press Gallery where the newspaper reporters sit is right opposite you as you look towards the Speaker's Chair.

Where would a Prime Minister stand when addressing the House?

The duties of the House of Commons are—

(1) To help to make the laws, or to amend existing laws.
(2) To decide what money the taxpayers shall pay.
(3) To help to govern the country—that is, to see that the laws are obeyed.
(4) To make known to the Government the grievances of the country.

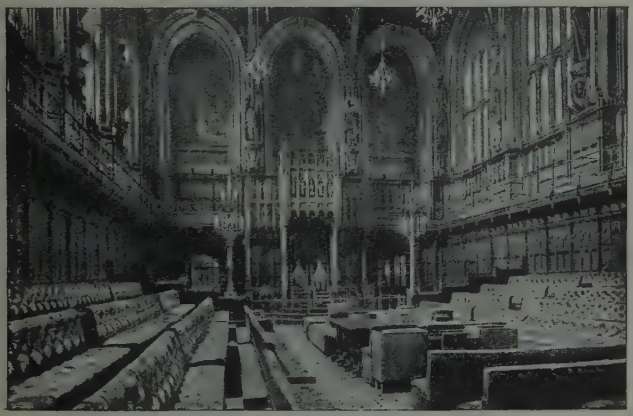
Why do we say "help" to make the laws and "help" to govern the country. What other helpers are there ?

§ 8. THE HOUSE OF LORDS

Study this picture of the interior of the House of Lords, sometimes spoken of as the "Gilded Chamber," in which the benches are covered with scarlet leather.

What general difference is there between the appearance of this House and that of the House of Commons ?

Find (1) "the Throne"—why are there *two* seats ?—(2) the seat or smaller throne to the King's right on which the "Heir-Apparent" sits



when Parliament is opened by the King ; (3) the Woolsack, the plain seat or divan or bench on which sits the Lord Chancellor, who acts as Chairman of the House of Lords ; (4) the Cross-benches, on which sit peers who do not belong either to the party of His Majesty's Government or to the Opposition.

The duties of the House of Lords are :—

(1) To help to make the laws.
(2) To help to govern the country.
(3) To act as the final Court of Appeal (see p. 125).

The House of Lords does not deal with money bills.

§ 9. A NEW LAW

In its first form a new law is known as a *Bill*, which is submitted to Parliament, usually by the Government of the day, and first of all

to the House of Commons, though a Bill other than a Money Bill may be brought in by a member of the House of Lords.

At the *First Reading* of the Bill, the member of the Government who "brings it in" explains its *clauses* without inviting discussion.

At the *Second Reading* the Bill is *debated*, sometimes very hotly, and after the debate a *vote* is taken. Members leave their seats and troop into the *lobbies*—one for the *Ayes*, another for the *Noes*. The Bill is then voted upon as a whole, and either passes its Second Reading or is rejected altogether.

If it passes, the Bill is further discussed, line by line and word by word, and probably altered *in Committee*, the Speaker leaving the Chair and the proceedings being controlled by a Chairman of Committee.

At the *Third Reading* there may be further debate, and the Bill may even yet be rejected or *thrown out;* but this is unusual, the critical stage being the Second Reading.

A Bill which originated in the House of Commons now *goes to the Lords*, who in some cases suggest alterations, and if these are not adopted by the House of Commons the Bill is lost or "thrown out by the Lords." If the Lords do not amend, or their amendments are agreed to by the Commons, the Bill is ready to receive the *Royal Assent*. This is always given, because the King acts on the advice of his Government, and thus the Bill becomes an *Act* and part of the law of the land.

§ 10. THE GOVERNMENT

His Majesty's Government is a kind of Committee, the most important part of which is known as the *Cabinet*, drawn from one political party, most of whom have seats either in the House of Commons or the House of Lords.

This governing body consists of a Prime Minister, Leader of the House of Commons, Lord President of the Council, Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Chancellor, Secretaries of State for (1) the Home Department, (2) Foreign Affairs, (3) the Colonies, (4) War, (5) India, (6) Scotland, First Lord of the Admiralty, President of the Board of Trade, Education, Ministers of (1) Health, (2) Agriculture and Fisheries, (3) Labour, (4) Education, with the Attorney-General. There are other Ministers and Secretaries who are members of the Government but not members of the Cabinet.

Look up to-day's newspaper and see whether any of the above Cabinet Ministers are mentioned.

§ 11. HIS MAJESTY'S JUDGES

Look back and find references in these Notes to (1) police court cases and magistrates; (2) civil cases in County Courts; (3) Assizes held in county towns.

King's Judges from the High Court in London regularly go *on circuit* to Assize Courts, where serious cases are tried, usually with the

help of twelve citizens who form the *jury*. The prisoner is placed in the *dock*, guarded by policemen or warders from the county prison; there is a witness-box where people stand who have been summoned to say what they know of the case; and a space for the general public, who have a right of admittance.

Barristers or lawyers, known as *counsel*, some for the *prosecution*, others for the *defence* of the prisoner, argue the case before the judge and jury. The jury then consider the arguments, usually retiring to another room to do so, and give a verdict of "guilty" or "not guilty" (or, if in Scotland, of "not proven"), whereupon sentence is passed by the judge.

Counsel may ask for leave to "*appeal*." If this is granted, the case is taken to the *Court of Criminal Appeal* in London, where eight judges reconsider it, and either confirm the *judgment* or *reverse* it. If they confirm, the counsel may *appeal to the House of Lords*, where the case is once more heard before the *Lords of Appeal*, whose judgment is final. People condemned to death may still be *reprieved* by the King, acting upon the advice of the Home Secretary.

Why is the figure of Justice above the Central Criminal Court in London holding a pair of evenly-balanced scales as well as a sword, and why is she blindfolded?

EXTRACTS FROM THE COVENANT OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The Covenant of the League of Nations forms Part I. of the Draft Treaties of Peace presented to the Delegates of the German Empire at Versailles on May 7, and to those of Austria at Saint-Germain on June 2, 1919.

THE High Contracting Parties, in order to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war, by the prescription of open, just, and honourable relations between nations, by the firm establishment of the understandings of international law as the actual rule of conduct among Governments, and by the maintenance of justice and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another, agree to this Covenant of the League of Nations.

ARTICLE I. The original Members of the League shall be those of the Signatories which are named in the Annex to this Covenant and also such of those other States named in the Annex as shall accede without reservation to this Covenant.

Any fully self-governing State, Dominion, or Colony not named in the Annex, may become a Member of the League if its admission is agreed to by two-thirds of the Assembly, provided that it shall give effective guarantees of its sincere intention to observe its international obligations, and shall accept such regulations as may be prescribed by the League in regard to its military, naval, and air forces and armaments.

ARTICLE II. The action of the League under this Covenant shall be effected through the instrumentality of an Assembly and of a Council, with a permanent Secretariat.

ARTICLE VII. The Seat of the League is established at Geneva.

ARTICLE VIII. The Members of the League recognize that the maintenance of peace requires the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations.

The Council, taking account of the geographical situation and circumstances of each State, shall formulate plans for such reduction for the consideration and action of the several Governments.

ARTICLE X. The Members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all Members of the League. In case of any such aggression, or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression, the Council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled.

ARTICLE XI. Any war or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the Members of the League or not, is hereby declared a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League shall take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations. In case any such emergency should arise the Secretary-General shall on the request of any Member of the League forthwith summon a meeting of the Council.

It is also declared to be the friendly right of each Member of the League to bring to the attention of the Assembly or of the Council any circumstance whatever affecting international relations which threatens to disturb international peace or the good understanding between nations upon which peace depends.

ARTICLE XII. The Members of the League agree that if there should arise between them any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, they will submit the matter either to arbitration or to inquiry by the Council, and they agree in no case to resort to war until three months after the award by the arbitrators or the report by the Council.

ARTICLE XIII. The Members of the League agree that whenever any dispute shall arise between them which they recognize to be suitable for submission to arbitration and which cannot be satisfactorily settled by diplomacy, they will submit the whole subject-matter to arbitration.

Disputes as to the interpretation of a treaty, as to any question of international law, as to the existence of any fact which if established would constitute a breach of any international obligation, or as to the extent and nature of the reparation to be made for any such breach, are declared to be among those which are generally suitable for submission to arbitration.

ARTICLE XIV. The Council shall formulate and submit to the Members of the League for adoption plans for the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice. The Court shall be competent to hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties thereto submit to it. The Court may also give an

advisory opinion upon any dispute or question referred to it by the Council or by the Assembly.

ARTICLE XV. If there should arise between Members of the League any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, which is not submitted to arbitration as above, the Members of the League agree that they will submit the matter to the Council. Any party to the dispute may effect such submission by giving notice of the existence of the dispute to the Secretary-General, who will make all necessary arrangements for a full investigation and consideration thereof.

The Council shall endeavour to effect a settlement of the dispute, and if such efforts are successful, a statement shall be made public giving such facts and explanations regarding the dispute and the terms of settlement thereof as the Council may deem appropriate.

If the dispute is not thus settled, the Council, either unanimously or by a majority vote, shall make and publish a report containing a statement of the facts of the dispute and the recommendations which are deemed just and proper in regard thereto.

Any Member of the League represented on the Council may make public a statement of the facts of the dispute and of its conclusions regarding the same.

If a report by the Council is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the Members of the League agree that they will not go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with the recommendations of the report.

If the Council fails to reach a report which is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof, other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the Members of the League reserve to themselves the right to take such action as they shall consider necessary for the maintenance of right and justice.

ARTICLE XVI. Should any Member of the League resort to war in disregard of its covenants, it shall *ipso facto* be deemed to have committed an act of war against all other Members of the League, which hereby undertake immediately to subject it to the severance of all trade or financial relations, the prohibition of all intercourse between their nationals and the nationals of the covenant-breaking State, and the prevention of all financial, commercial, or personal intercourse between the nationals of the covenant-breaking State and the nationals of any other State, whether a Member of the League or not.

It shall be the duty of the Council in such case to recommend to the several Governments concerned what effective military, naval, or air force the Members of the League shall severally contribute to the armed forces to be used to protect the covenants of the League.

The Members of the League agree, further, that they will mutually support one another in the financial and economic measures which are taken under this article, in order to minimize the loss and inconvenience resulting from the above measures, and that they will mutually support one another in resisting any special measures aimed at one of their number by the covenant-breaking State, and that they will take the

necessary steps to afford passage through their territory to the forces of any of the Members of the League which are co-operating to protect the covenants of the League.

ARTICLE XXII. To those colonies and territories which as a consequence of the late war have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the well-being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilization and that securities for the performance of this trust should be embodied in this Covenant.

The best method of giving practical effect to this principle is that the tutelage of such peoples should be entrusted to advanced nations who by reason of their resources, their experience or their geographical position, can best undertake this responsibility, and who are willing to accept it, and that this tutelage should be exercised by them as Mandatories on behalf of the League.

The character of the Mandate must differ according to the stage of the development of the people, the geographical situation of the territory, its economic conditions, and other similar circumstances.

ANNEX TO THE COVENANT

ORIGINAL MEMBERS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Signatories of the Treaty of Peace

United States of America, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Empire (Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, India), China, Cuba, Czecho-Slovakia, Ecuador, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hedjaz, Honduras, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, Uruguay.

States Invited to Accede to the Covenant

Argentine Republic, Chile, Colombia, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, Paraguay, Persia, Salvador, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Venezuela.

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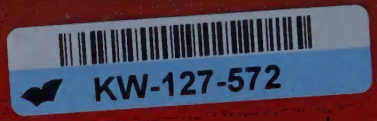
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